ONTARIO TEACHERS' MANUALS

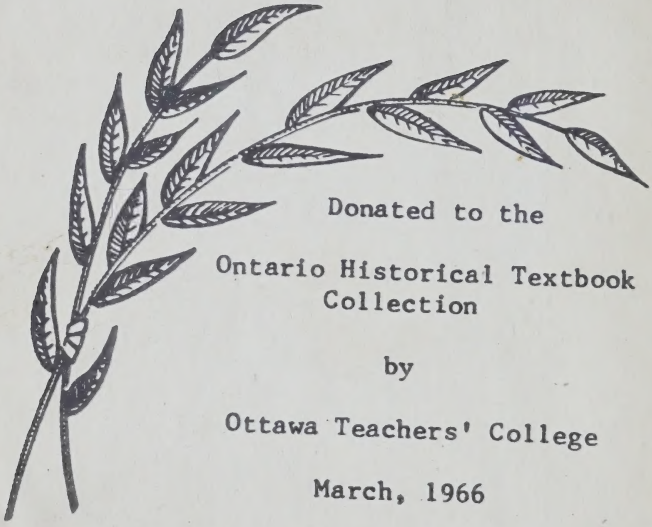
GRAMMAR

AUTHORIZED BY THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION

PRICE 15 CENTS

TORONTO
WILLIAM BRIGGS

OHEC
375
.00971
059DE\O
v.6



Donated to the

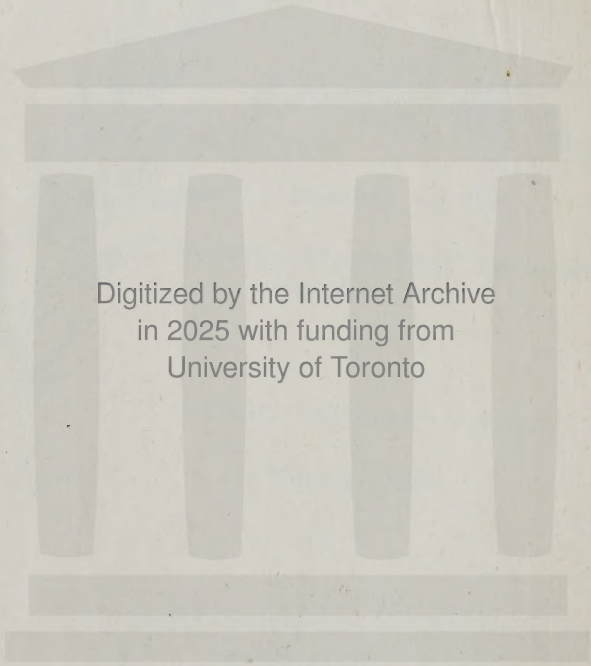
Ontario Historical Textbook
Collection

by

Ottawa Teachers' College

March, 1966

LIBRARY
NORMAL SCHOOL
OTTAWA
48



Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2025 with funding from
University of Toronto

https://archive.org/details/ontarioteachersm06onta_0

ONTARIO
TEACHERS' MANUALS

GRAMMAR

AUTHORIZED BY THE MINISTER OF EDUCATION

LIBRARY
NORMAL SCHOOL
OTTAWA

TORONTO
THE RYERSON PRESS.

Copyright, Canada, 1915, by
The Minister of Education for Ontario
Revised Edition, 1921.
Third Printing, 1924.

425.07
1921
ONT
cop 5

DEPT. OF EDUCATION
HISTORICAL COLLECTION

CONTENTS

PAGE

PREFATORY NOTE vi

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION 1
The Nature of Grammar 1
The Scope of Grammar 2
Phases of Grammar Study 4
Educational Value of Grammar 5
In relation to speech 5
In relation to composition 6
In relation to reading and literature 7
In relation to mental discipline 7
The Place of Grammar in the Public and the Separate Schools 8
An Analysis of the Course in Grammar for the Public and the Separate Schools 10

CHAPTER II

THE METHOD OF GRAMMAR 16
The Grammar Lesson Plan 19
Preparation; presentation of problem; selecting and relating processes; the developing exercise; the technical name; the description; the application; the formal definition.
Type Examples versus Shading 23
Form versus Meaning 24
Correction of False Syntax 26

CHAPTER III

THE SENTENCE—LESSON OUTLINES 27
Classification of Sentences According to Form .. 30
Assertive and interrogative sentences 30
Subject and Predicate 32
Bare subject and bare predicate 34

CHAPTER IV

PARTS OF SPEECH 37
The Noun 37
Objects and Completions 38
The Adverb and the Adjective 40

PAGE

The Complex Sentence 46
Notes on the teaching of the complex sentence 47
Adverb clauses 49
Adverb phrases 50
The Preposition 51

CHAPTER V

Different Grammatical Uses of the same Word in different Sentences 55
Words with Double Value and Relation in the same Sentence 57
The infinitive 58
Infinitives as adverbs 61
Infinitives as adjectives 62
Verbal adjectives or participles 63
The conjunctive pronoun 64
The conjunctive adverb 66

CHAPTER VI

CLASSIFICATION 68
Classification of Pronouns 71
Classification of Verbs according to meaning 76
Classification of Adjectives according to form ... 78
Classification of Conjunctions 82

CHAPTER VII

INFLECTION 86
Case—Steps in the lesson 86
Mood 89
VERB PHRASES 92
Principal and Auxiliary Verbs 92
Subjunctive Verb Phrases 95
Perfect and Progressive Verb Phrases 97

CHAPTER VIII

ANALYSIS 99
Grammatical Analysis of Sentences 100
Classes of ideas and relations 101
Stages in grammatical analysis 103
Forms of Graphic Analysis 106
Value and Limitations of Graphic Analysis 109
Sentences for graphic analysis 110

CHAPTER IX

PARSING 112
Extent of Work in Analysis and Parsing 118
The Method of Analysis and Parsing as a Deductive Exercise 119

CHAPTER X PAGE

GENERAL EXERCISES 123
The Sentence 123
Classification of Sentences according to Form and Composition 123
Sentence Elements 125
Composition of sentence elements 125
Classes of Words: 1. The parts of speech 2. Classes of words with double functions 3. Special classes of words 126
Clauses 130
Phrases 131
The Parts of Speech 133
The Noun 133
I. Classes of nouns 133
II. Inflection of nouns 134
III. Uses of the cases 134
The Pronoun 139
I. Classes of pronouns 139
II. Inflection of pronouns 139
III. Uses of the cases 140
The Verb 141
I. Classes of verbs 141
II. Inflection of verbs 142
III. Classes of verb phrases 142
The Adjective—Classification 147
The Adverb—Classification 151
The Preposition—Classification 155
The Conjunction—Classification 157

CHAPTER XI

EXTRACTS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING 159

PREFATORY NOTE

The attention of the student-teacher is especially called to certain important points in regard to the presentation or statement of grammatical facts wherein the *Public School Composition and Grammar* differs from several other text-books. The most important of these are as follows:

1. The presentation of Case as a function and relation rather than as an inflection (page 217).

2. Recognition of the facts that many pronouns have no plural forms (page 43); that many nouns and pronouns have no possessive forms in actual use (page 224); and that the possessive forms of nouns and pronouns are used to express other ideas than possession (page 223).

3. A more precise statement of the nature of mood (pages 234-6).

4. The presentation of the fact that true agreement of verb with subject in person and number is comparatively uncommon in the English verb (page 227); and the providing of a form of parsing to correspond to that fact (page 242).

5. The substitution of *you* for *thou* as the ordinary so-called second person singular of the pronoun in connection with the conjugation of the verb.

6. The presentation of the expression "subject *omitted*" instead of "subject understood" in parsing the ordinary imperative verb (page 252).

7. The use of the terms *co-ordinative* and *subordinative* in describing conjunctions (page 207).

GRAMMAR

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

THE NATURE OF GRAMMAR

GRAMMAR has been defined as "The Science of the Sentence". The first step, therefore, in an explanation of the nature of grammar will be a brief statement of the nature of science in general. Each science is found to concern itself with some certain class of objects which it treats as subject-matter for study. Through observation and experimentation it seeks to discover the facts connected with these objects, to set forth the laws and principles underlying those facts, and thus present them as systematized and organized facts, that is, as knowledge. For example, the science of medicine concerns itself as above with the facts of disease and health, the science of botany with the facts of plant life, the science of psychology with the facts of mind, or consciousness. As a science, therefore, grammar must present in the form of systematized knowledge a body of facts and principles which are met in connection with the class of objects called sentences.

Turning next to a consideration of the subject-matter of grammar—the sentence, we find that the sentence, as the expression of a single thought, represents a complete unit of language. The nature of the subject-matter of

grammar may, therefore, best be understood through a consideration of the nature of language in general. All language presents a twofold aspect. On its formal side it represents a co-ordination of sounds, or of symbols representing these sounds—its phonic aspect. On its content side it constitutes a record of human thought and feeling—its psychic aspect.

Besides, however, providing for human thought a record in phonic terms, language is also to be viewed as a necessary instrument for thought. That is, no thinking beyond a most rudimentary type can take place except through the instrumentality of language; in other words, language is a necessary instrument through and by which all adequate thinking must take place.

In addition, therefore, to the separate study of the sounds and sound symbols of which language is constituted, and of the thoughts expressed by these sounds, there is a third aspect in which language may be studied. Corresponding to the orderly processes through which the mind combines its ideas into thoughts, language presents laws and principles governing the connection of words in sentences. It is only through the universality of these laws and principles that language furnishes an instrument for conceiving and recording thought. It is with these laws and principles that the science of grammar is concerned. *Grammar may, therefore, be defined as an investigation into the general laws and principles which underlie the structure of language, or of the sentence as an instrument of thought.*

THE SCOPE OF GRAMMAR

As the science of the sentence, grammar must confine itself to a study of such facts as enter into the problems

of sentence structure. Although, therefore, sentences are composed of words, grammar should concern itself with the study of words only in reference to the relations they bear to one another when entering into sentence structure. The study of words as objects in themselves does not fall within the science of grammar. Orthœpy, which treats of the pronunciation of words, orthography, which treats of the spelling of words, and lexicology, which treats of the derivation and significance of words, are not parts of grammar. In contradistinction, therefore, to the writers of the old text-books of grammar, modern grammarians generally exclude the above topics from the science. Thus the facts of grammar will separate themselves into three main divisions:

1. Syntax.—The study of the logical parts into which sentences may be divided and of the various relations which exist between these parts.

2. Classification.—The study of the various classes and sub-classes into which words may be divided according to their uses in expressing the various logical ideas of which the sentence-thought is composed.

3. Inflection.—The study of the changes of form which words undergo when brought into relation with one another in sentences, and of any substitutes which the language has developed to take the place of these changes of form.

Having limited grammar to the above branches, we may notice further that it is not the only science which concerns itself with the study of the sentence. In rhetoric, which is a normative science, we study both the structure of sentences and their combination into paragraphs, for the purpose of deducing rules as standards of criticism

in the art of composition. Since, however, these rules and principles have to do with the practical adaptation of language on the one hand to the subject and on the other hand to the hearer or reader, they are particular in character and thus fall outside the science of grammar, which, as we have seen, treats of the general laws and principles involved in the formation of sentences, quite independent of their adaptation to the subject, and their effect upon the hearer or reader. The grammarian investigates the principles of sentence structure so far as the fixed habits and customs of the language have made them necessary conditions in the use of the language as an instrument of thought. The rhetorician inquires further whether the style of the language is fitted to the occasion and end for which it is used.

PHASES OF GRAMMAR STUDY

In studying the grammar of a language, we may aim simply to observe and state without explanation the general facts and principles of the language, as when a pupil by comparing such sentences as:

He *lives* here now;
He *lived* here last year;

is able to observe for himself and state the facts underlying tense inflection. Since this phase of grammar concerns itself only with the "what" of the science, it is termed DESCRIPTIVE grammar. On the other hand, we may seek a reason for the facts and principles set forth in descriptive grammar. This phase of grammar, which concerns itself mainly with the "why" of the science, is termed EXPLANATORY grammar.

In searching for an explanation of such grammatical facts, we may be able to explain them by tracing them

through the earlier stages of our own language. For example, we find an explanation of the use of the apostrophe and *s* as a sign of possession, by tracing it back to the early English use of *es* as a sign of the genitive case. This type of explanatory grammar is called HISTORICAL grammar. Again, we may find an explanation for the grammatical facts found in our language by comparing them with similar facts in another language to which our own is related; as when we are able to explain a fact in English grammar by comparing it with a similar fact in the Dutch or the German language. For example, by noting the use of *m* as a dative sign in German pronouns, we understand more fully the nature of such pronoun forms as *him, them,* and *whom.* Because the forms of kindred languages are here compared, this phase of explanatory grammar is usually called COMPARATIVE grammar.

NOTE.—The teacher may also find it useful at times to refer to known dialectic forms for purposes of explanation. For example, in teaching the forms *it* and *his*, as inflected forms of the same word, being originally *hit, his*, it would be well to call attention to any tendencies the pupils may have noted among their acquaintances to drop *h* in a similar way at the beginning of words or to retain the old form, "hit" for "it".

EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF GRAMMAR

1. IN RELATION TO SPEECH

Although grammar is the science which treats of the general laws and principles which underlie the structure of sentences, it does not necessarily have a direct influence upon spoken language. The mother-tongue is acquired chiefly through imitation prior to its formal study in the school. Thus some mastery of the vernacular language

always precedes grammar, and correct speech is a matter of social environment and practice rather than of rule.

But while this is true, it must not be overlooked that a knowledge of grammar may have an indirect influence upon practice. By presenting to the pupil, in systematic outline, the principles of his language, grammar enables him to use it in a rational instead of in a merely imitative way. Being able to use his language in a rational way, the pupil is enabled to detect incorrect forms in his speech and may, if sufficiently watchful, establish new and correct habits of speech through a persistent striving after the new conscious ideal.

2. IN RELATION TO COMPOSITION

It has been shown in a previous section that the art of composition is guided by rules formulated in another science—rhetoric. Since, however, the sentence is the simple unit of language, it is evident that it is also the primary unit in the art of composition. Accordingly, the science of rhetoric, in investigating sentence structure, must begin where the science of grammar leaves off, and the student of composition must be familiar not only with the rules of rhetoric but also with the laws of grammar, as standards of criticism. It may be noted further that written composition, since it lacks the interpretative elements furnished in ordinary speech through voice and gesture, demands a more full and formal type of sentence structure. Thus written composition, in addition to affording time and opportunity for criticism not available in spoken language, also requires a fuller knowledge of the principles of sentence structure. One of the chief practical values of the study of grammar is, therefore, its use in the criticism of written composition.

3. IN RELATION TO READING AND LITERATURE

Since English is largely a non-inflected language, the values and relations of the words in a sentence must, for the most part, be determined by the uses to which they are put, that is, by the nature of the thought they express. In other words, the grammar of the sentence is largely determined by the thought, and not the thought by the grammatical form. For this reason it is frequently argued that grammar can possess no practical value in relation to reading and literature, since the literary interpretation must precede the grammatical, and not the grammatical, the literary.

While the above view no doubt contains an element of truth, we notice on the other hand that, as an instrument of thought, the sentence possesses general and well marked principles of structure. Moreover, a thorough knowledge of the nature and characteristics of any tool or instrument cannot fail to furnish a clue as to the work it is intended to do. We may justly claim, therefore, that a knowledge of the sentence as an instrument of thought, and of the laws and principles which underlie its structure, will aid in furnishing a proper interpretation of many difficult passages in our reading and literature. We might note, for example, the mood of the verbs in interpreting the meaning of such a sentence as: "It was folly to suggest it and it were sin to execute it." Thus a third practical value of the study of grammar is its interpretative value in connection with reading and literature.

4. IN RELATION TO MENTAL DISCIPLINE

Much has been spoken and written in reference to the disciplinary value of grammar, or its use as a means of

exercising the mind and thereby developing mental power, independently of any practical application of the special knowledge obtained. It must, however, be accepted as an established fact in the science of education that no subject should be taught for a purely formal disciplinary value. Training in one subject of study can give mental aptitude for other subjects only so far as that subject furnishes knowledge or functional ideas which enter as elements into the other subjects. Nevertheless it will be found that the study of grammar furnishes a unique and essential type of mental discipline for the pupils of the elementary school. As a pure science, grammar furnishes exercise in analysis, logical division, and classification to an extent not found in the other elementary subjects. Through its method, therefore, and the reflective character of its subject-matter, it is pre-eminently the subject in the Courses of Study which will give to the pupil the principles of scientific thinking and furnish him with the necessary forms and ideas for establishing habits of analysis, abstraction, and generalization, which will have general application both in more advanced subjects of study and in the practical affairs of after life. Since, therefore, the study of grammar leads to the establishment of logical methods of thinking, it may justly be said to possess a value as mental discipline in addition to the above named practical values.

GRAMMAR IN THE PUBLIC AND THE SEPARATE SCHOOLS

It is evident from the facts already deduced from the consideration of the relation existing between function and form in the structure of the English sentence, that the observations to be made and the inferences to be drawn by the pupils depend not so much upon differences of

concrete form as upon differences of meaning. Thus the facts to be observed in the study of grammar are largely objects of reflection rather than objects of ordinary observation. Moreover, the conclusions reached by these observations are, in most cases, of a somewhat general and abstract character. For this reason the study of formal grammar, as a separate subject, should not be begun by the child until his early interest in the concrete and the particular is developing a desire for more general and abstract modes of thinking.

From the fact that grammar is a reflective study of language, it is further evident that adequate concrete study of language must precede its formal study as grammar. Until such time, therefore, as the child has secured through reading and composition an adequate language basis upon which to proceed with the more reflective study of the language, no formal work in grammar should be attempted. It is to be understood, of course, that, in connection with the preliminary course in oral and written composition, there will be a study of grammatical forms purely from the standpoint of their use in practical composition—for example, case and number forms in nouns and pronouns, irregular verb forms, etc.

Grammar, however, as a separate scientific study of language should appear on the Courses of Study for the Public and Separate Schools only sufficiently early to admit of giving the pupils, in systematic outline, the simple facts and principles which underlie the structure of the English sentence. The two years spent in Form IV will be found sufficient for this purpose.

It will be further evident from the above that the Course in grammar in these schools must be confined almost wholly to the simple facts of modern descriptive

grammar. The more difficult facts, idioms, and irregular constructions, even of descriptive grammar, may well be left to the secondary schools. Occasional reference may be made, for purposes of explanation, to the simpler facts of historical grammar, but only when these can be given some setting in the ordinary historical knowledge of the pupils.

THE COURSE IN GRAMMAR FOR THE PUBLIC AND THE SEPARATE SCHOOLS

As a science which aims to discover the general facts and principles which underlie the structure of language as an instrument of thought, grammar must proceed to a discovery of these facts and principles through a study of concrete examples. The Course in grammar should, therefore, begin with the study of the sentence as a whole, and proceed thence by analysis to a consideration of the nature and relations of the various elements of which the sentence is composed. Three pedagogical reasons may be given in support of this statement:

1. Since the sentence is the unit of language, it is the simplest form in which a complete specimen of language can be placed before the pupil, which must be done if we are to follow the pedagogical law of proceeding from whole to parts.

2. The sentence being the primary unit in the pupil's previous work in reading and composition, it already forms on its content side a part of his old knowledge. Thus the method of beginning with the sentence will satisfy the pedagogical law of proceeding from the known to the unknown.

3. An explanation of the smaller elements entering into the sentence can be found only when they are viewed

in relation to the thought expressed, and, therefore, in the light of the sentence as a complete whole. Thus, without the adequate knowledge of the sentence as a whole, no organizing centre is provided for these subordinate facts.

Beginning with a study of the sentence as a whole, we may next take up the classification of sentences according to the *phases of thought they express*; that is, as assertive, interrogative, and imperative. The classification of sentences as simple, complex, and compound, being on the *basis of structure,* or *composition,* cannot be taken up until the pupil has learned the logical parts of the sentence.

When we proceed to an analysis of the sentence into its component parts, two classes of elements present themselves:

1. By a logical analysis of the thought expressed in the sentence, we arrive at a knowledge of the organic parts, or ideas, of which the sentence is composed—subject, predicate, object, completion, modifiers.

2. By a comparison of the words composing sentences on the basis of their use in expressing the organic parts, or ideas, of which the sentence-thought is composed, we arrive at a knowledge of the parts of speech, or classes, into which words are divided.

It is evident from the above that the teaching of the parts of speech should follow after, and rest upon, a previous analysis of the sentence into its logical parts. In pursuing the Course in detail, however, two different lines of procedure may be followed:

1. The logical analysis of the sentence may first be completed in detail, followed later by a study of the parts of speech.

2. The two classes of elements may be developed in stages, only so much logical analysis of the sentence taking

place in each stage as is necessary for teaching a section of the parts of speech.

The latter procedure, which in the main is the one followed in the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* is no doubt the better, since it provides for an earlier introduction of the parts of speech, around which most of the pupil's grammatical knowledge must ultimately cluster. The following gives in outline a Course on the sentence and the parts of speech:

1. The Sentence
2. Classification of Sentences
3. Subject and Predicate
4. Bare Subject and Bare Predicate
5. Noun, Pronoun, and Verb
6. Complete and Incomplete Verbs
7. Objects, Completions, and Modifiers
8. Adjective and Adverb
9. Simple, Complex, and Compound Sentences
10. Subordinate Clauses and Phrases
11. Preposition and Conjunction.

This section of the Course may then be concluded as follows:

12. The Interjection
13. The Exclamatory Sentence
14. Different grammatical Uses of the same word
15. Summary of the various Classes of words and word equivalents.

In the next section of the Course the pupils will learn the sub-classes into which the various parts of speech may be divided on the basis of certain fundamental properties they possess. Here, also, may be introduced in their

proper connection certain peculiar classes of words, such as infinitives, conjunctive pronouns, etc., which possess double functions in the sentence and, therefore, partake of the nature of more than one part of speech. The following is an outline of the topics comprising this division of the work:

1. Classification of Nouns:
   (*a*) On basis of application
   (*b*) On basis of sex
2. Classification of Verbs according to meaning
3. Infinitives, uses of Infinitives, forms of Infinitives
4. Participles, classification of Participles
5. Classification of Pronouns
6. Conjunctive Pronouns
7. Pronominal Adjectives
8. Classes of Adjectives:
   (*a*) According to meaning
   (*b*) According to form
9. Classification of Adverbs
10. Conjunctive Adverbs
11. Classification of Conjunctions.

On the completion of the work of sub-classification, the subject of Inflection is next to be taken. The following order of topics should be followed:

1. Nature of Inflection
2. Number in Nouns and Pronouns
3. Case in Nouns and Pronouns
4. Declension
5. Tense
6. Person in Verbs
7. Number in Verbs

8. Special forms of Agreement
9. Mood
10. Classes of Verbs according to Conjugation.

In connection with this study it will be necessary to consider certain substitutes for inflection. This will introduce us naturally to the study of Verb Phrases.

The following is the order of topics for the study of verb phrases:

1. Principal and Auxiliary Verbs
2. Future Phrases
3. Subjunctive Phrases
4. Perfect Phrases
5. Progressive Phrases
6. Emphatic Phrases
7. Passive Phrases
8. Compound Phrases.

If desired, a further extension of the Course may now be made, by a study in order of the special syntax, or constructions, of the various parts of speech. The following order of topics should be followed:

1. Case Constructions—uses of the nominative case, the possessive case, the objective case, nouns in apposition, other functions and relations of nouns.

2. Pronoun Constructions—compound personal pronouns; demonstratives, demonstratives of the third person used in personification, uses of *it;* indefinite pronouns; reciprocal pronoun phrases.

3. The Adjective—descriptive and limiting adjectives, constructions of the adjective, other forms of adjectives; the articles, a special use of the articles.

4. The Adverb—constructions of the adverb, adverbs and adjectives, comparison of adverbs.

5. The Preposition—a special construction of the preposition, forms of prepositions, special prepositions, position of the preposition.

6. The Conjunction.

7. The introductory expletive; sentence words.

CHAPTER II

THE METHOD OF GRAMMAR

In the study of grammar, we should proceed to a discovery of the general laws and principles of the language through a study of concrete examples. In the examination of the particular examples, common properties and fundamental differences are noted, and grammatical principles drawn as inferences from these. By this method the pupil obtains an intelligent grasp of these general and abstract principles through the concrete basis furnished by the particular examples with which they are associated in the teaching process. The INDUCTIVE method, therefore, or the method of proceeding from the particular to the general, is to be followed in presenting the facts and principles of grammar.

It has been noted, however, that the laws and principles of grammar possess practical value through their correlation with other phases of language work. The pupils must, therefore, be given practical control of their grammatical knowledge through applying it in the working of particular problems or examples. Here, since the general principle precedes and is applied to the solution of the particular examples, the DEDUCTIVE method, or the method of proceeding from the general to the particular, is used. Thus the full method of grammar will be the INDUCTIVE-DEDUCTIVE method, the general laws and principles being discovered inductively and then applied deductively.

It has also been shown that in the study of grammar we must proceed from a study of the sentence as a whole

to a knowledge of the logical divisions and words of which the sentence is composed. It has been seen further that, from a study of the characteristics possessed by these words when used in relation with other words in the sentence, we arrive at a knowledge of the sub-classes into which the various classes of words are divided and of the flectional changes which certain of these classes undergo. Thus the study of grammar may also be said to proceed by the ANALYTIC method, that is, by an analysis of the known whole, to a knowledge of the parts of which the whole is logically composed. For example, from our knowledge of the noun as a name word, we are able, on the basis of the extent to which the word may be applied, to further analyse the whole class of nouns into the sub-divisions of proper and common nouns. Since, however, the knowledge of the parts comprising the whole will always lead to a fuller knowledge of the whole through the intelligent union, or SYNTHESIS, of the newly discovered parts, the method of grammar may, from this standpoint, be further described as an ANALYTIC-SYNTHETIC process.

Moreover, in learning the general principles of grammar, the pupil must be led to discover these facts for himself, through the application of his own knowledge to the presented examples. That is, through his own mental self-activity, the pupil must recognize the new facts in terms of his old knowledge and properly assimilate the new with the old. For example, in learning the participle, the pupil must himself discover its nature through the application of his previous knowledge of the verbal and adjectival functions and relations to suitable examples of particular participles. So, also, in mastering the complex sentence, he must interpret particular examples of these

in the light of his previous knowledge of the statement and of the logical divisions of the statement, by noting that in the new presentation one statement forms merely a logical division of another. The method used in teaching grammar must, therefore, also be a developing method, or a method by which the pupil, under the guidance and inspiration of the teacher, is led to draw the necessary inferences in accordance with the psychic law of apperception.

While the method of grammar has been described as a developing method, it must not be inferred that every lesson in this subject is to be conducted as a formal developing lesson, but only those lessons in which the rules and principles of the science are being presented to the class. In addition to these lessons, however, the teacher will find it necessary at regular intervals to conduct drill lessons in which the matter of a previous lesson is to be presented in the same form as before, in order to fix it more definitely in the minds of the pupils. Many lessons must be conducted also, the aim of which will be to give the pupils facility in the use of their grammatical knowledge. Lessons in parsing and analysis, for example, although they may be conducted largely in accordance with the principles of the developing method, do not, as will be pointed out on page 99, aim primarily to develop new knowledge in the pupils, but rather to give the pupils abundant opportunity to apply, under a variety of conditions, grammatical principles which have been previously learned. At stated intervals also, topical reviews should be conducted, in order that the facts learned in a series of lessons may be organized into a unified whole. The outlines contained in the General Exercises, page 123, will suggest materials for such review lessons.

THE GRAMMAR LESSON PLAN

The method of teaching any subject must accord with certain principles determined by the nature of the learning process. These principles of general method are discussed in Part II of the *Science of Education.*

In a regular developing lesson in grammar, the teacher must have a clear conception of the aim of the particular lesson, a definite knowledge of the steps to be taken by the pupil in interpreting the new knowledge in terms of his old knowledge, and a ready command of appropriate examples, questions, etc., by means of which the pupil may be led through the necessary steps in passing from the known to the unknown. Moreover, the adaptation of the principles of general method to the ordinary developing lesson in grammar involves certain special features. The leading steps of a normal inductive-deductive developing lesson will be as follows:

1. PREPARATION

In this division of the lesson, the teacher will review with the pupils such old knowledge as is to be used in the comparative analysis of the new presentations. In preparing, for example, to develop a knowledge of the participle, he must be assured that his pupils already possess an adequate knowledge of the nature and function of verbs and of adjectives as a basis for the comparative study of the new facts to be presented.

2. PRESENTATION OF PROBLEM

The particular type examples containing the new fact or facts to be taught are next to be presented to the class for observation, and the pupils led to discover in them the

problem to be investigated. For example, when presented with sentences containing different forms of the same noun or pronoun, as, *he, his, him,* etc., the pupils will seize as a problem to be solved the cause of these variations in form. (See note at the end of this section in reference to the use of type examples.)

3. SELECTING AND RELATING PROCESSES

By bringing to bear upon the presented problem appropriate ideas recalled in the step of preparation, and therefore *selected* from their former knowledge, the pupils are able to read meaning into the presented example, or solve the problem before them. Finally, they relate, or organize, these selected ideas into a new element of knowledge, or, in other words, learn the facts set forth in the lesson. For example, in the lesson on participles already referred to, a study of the presented participles in the light of the pupil's former knowledge of verbs and adjectives will enable him to form a conception of a class of words possessing the double function.

4. THE DEVELOPING EXERCISE

Further examples of the fact or principle being taught should now be presented, to enable the pupil to apply the new grammatical idea previous to receiving the technical name. For example, when a pupil learns that certain words may possess the double function, verb and adjective, he will be able to select from other sentences words possessing like functions, by applying only the grammatical thought or idea without the technical name—participle. This will assure the teacher that the pupil has a working control of the thought or idea at the basis of the

new presentation, and that he is not acquiring it as a mere verbal distinction. [In the *Public School Composition and Grammar* examples for this step have sometimes been omitted. Such examples, however, can readily be supplied by the teacher if deemed necessary.]

5. THE TECHNICAL NAME

Having demonstrated in the last step his ability to use the newly acquired grammatical fact as a thought fact, the pupil may now be given the technical name under which the new fact or principle is to take its place in his organized grammatical knowledge.

6. THE DESCRIPTION

The pupil is next called upon to give in his own words a description of the significance of the new term. This, however, must not be treated as an exact formal definition, but rather a semi-logical description, limited to the particular type examples constituting the developing exercise.

7. THE APPLICATION

A practical application of the now organized and controlled new knowledge is next to be made by the working of suitable exercises as problems involving the new principle, by the parsing and analysis of literary selections into which it especially enters, and by its introduction into appropriate composition exercises.

8. THE FORMAL DEFINITION

It has been pointed out above that the semi-logical description given in the sixth step is not to be viewed as a definition. At no time, moreover, should we make the

fundamental mistake of hiding from the pupil, through the verbal refinements of highly elaborated logical definitions, the concrete basis which his generalized knowledge would possess through a simpler description based upon particular examples. After a reasonable amount of application, however, the pupil should be able to state in a fairly exact form the fundamental characteristics of the newly taught fact or principle, as they appear to him in the light of the various concrete exercises. So far, therefore, as an exact definition is aimed at, this should be the last step in the teaching process, when the pupil will be familiar with numerous concrete examples.

In the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* although as a text-book it necessarily treats the various lesson topics in an expository form, each important lesson is, nevertheless, outlined in such a way as will readily suggest the eight steps given above. Each lesson, for instance, is found to begin with a preliminary statement suggesting the nature of the observations and comparisons to be made by the pupils in connection with the presented type examples given immediately below. Although, as a text-book, it does not furnish materials for the preparatory step, it nevertheless indicates in the preliminary statement what the necessary preparatory work should be.

Following the presented examples, also, is a statement of the general facts or ideas to be obtained from the comparative study of the type examples. Although these results are likewise necessarily given in expository form, *it is taken for granted that the teacher will have the pupils discover them through their own observations and comparisons made during the recitation and before reading the topic in the text-book,* thus fulfilling the requirement of the third step.

Again, following the developing exercise in each lesson, there is found, in connection with the giving of the technical name, a description of its significance, based on the particular type examples of the exercises. Here, likewise, although this description is given in an expository form, *the text-book again assumes that the teacher will obtain the facts from the pupils not by the use of the text-book, but through suitable questions based upon the presented examples,* and thus fulfil the requirements of the sixth step. (See "CAUTION" on page 26 of this book.)

In all other cases, the parallel between the lesson plan outlined above and the text-book treatment will be apparent.

TYPE EXAMPLES VERSUS SHADING

In that portion of this Manual treating of general method, it has been pointed out that the facts and principles of grammar are to be arrived at analytically, through a process of comparison, by means of concrete type examples illustrating the facts or principles to be discriminated. In the case of many grammatical distinctions, however, in addition to these type examples which manifest the distinctive characteristics of the various classes of facts, there are to be found other examples which shade away from the well marked classes into which the phenomena of the language are naturally divided. Thus, in

He *broke* the fence;
He *climbed* over the fence;

we have a type example of the transitive and the intransitive verb respectively.

In the sentence,

He *climbed* the fence;

the verb is to be viewed as transitive, the idea expressed

in the previous sentence by the word "over" being now taken up and covered by the word "climbed".

So also in the examples,

The *brave* men are fighting heroically;
The *braves* are fighting heroically;

we have in the italicized words a type example respectively of the adjective and the noun.

Moreover, in the example,

The *brave* fight heroically;

the word *brave* is to be taken as a noun, since it is the subject of the verb and is modified by the article, although it is not inflected for the plural as would be the case with an ordinary noun.

Instances such as the last are spoken of as examples of shading, signifying that such examples shade between certain normal classes, in reference to those characteristics which distinguish these particular classes.

A knowledge of the ordinary cases of shading to be found in the language will prove of practical value to the teacher of grammar when selecting examples for teaching. For it will be evident that *only strongly marked type examples should be presented to the class* when grammatical distinctions are to be developed. Examples which manifest in any way the phenomenon of shading should be placed before the pupil only after he is thoroughly conversant with the normal types of the classes between which the shading takes place.

FORM VERSUS MEANING

We have already noticed that in English, since it is a non-inflected language, we must for the most part determine grammatical value by meaning rather than by form.

On account, however, of a certain form being used in most cases with the same function, a frequent source of error arises from the tendency to determine grammatical values in all such cases on the basis of form rather than on the basis of meaning. For example, since a subordinate clause introduced by the conjunctive adverb *when* is commonly an adverbial clause of time, the pupil, without considering the meaning, will have a tendency to classify in this way all subordinate clauses of this form. This classification, however, is not satisfactory in such an example as,

I could not play correctly when they were talking;

and would be quite incorrect in such sentences as,

I am uncertain when he will go;
The best time will be when they are leaving.

On the other hand, however, there are cases when grammatical value is usually decided on the basis of form rather than on that of meaning. This is done in cases where form lies at the basis of the grammatical distinctions, as in the various inflections. For example, although in the sentence,

He goes there to-morrow;

the meaning is manifestly future, it is usually held to be incorrect to speak of *goes* merely as the future tense of the verb. Here, since tense is naturally a variation of form in the verb to express a distinction of time, we should speak of *goes* as the present tense form used with a future meaning. But in the example,

John, you are late;

although the meaning is evidently singular, it would be well not to speak of number at all, since the form *you are* is used indiscriminately for one or more than one.

CORRECTION OF FALSE SYNTAX

The advisability of applying the rules of grammar by means of exercises in the correction of false syntax has been a much disputed question among teachers of grammar. It was pointed out above that, where a young pupil has formed incorrect habits of speech prior to the study of grammatical rules, he may, when made conscious in his grammar lessons of these incorrect forms, establish correct habits of speech through the rational standards he is then able to set up. This being the case, we might suppose that these exercises in false syntax would be a most effective means through which the pupils could be made conscious of such errors as exist in their language. But it must be remembered that young pupils are still strongly endowed with the instinct of imitation, that these errors exist mainly in their oral language, and that the particular error to be discussed is not often common to all the members of the class. Positive harm, therefore, might be done through these exercises, if the pupils received a strong visual image of the incorrect forms, or if the errors were so emphasized orally that they gave a lasting auditory image to pupils not previously using the incorrect forms. For these reasons, such exercises should be very sparingly used with pupils in the elementary schools. Nor should any errors be treated beyond those likely to be met in the actual environment of the pupils, as it is only in the case of such errors that practical results might justify the risks connected with the use of the exercises.

Caution.—The student-teacher should remember that the word "Notice" in the pupils' text-book is usually to be taken as being addressed to the teacher. Generally, whatever immediately follows is first to be developed by the teacher, not told to or read by the pupil.

CHAPTER III

THE SENTENCE

LESSON OUTLINES

In this division of the Manual there is no attempt to present an outline of lesson presentation for every topic throughout the grammar Course. The aim is rather to treat certain representative topics in each of the main divisions of the subject. Through a study of these and the aid furnished by the very suggestive outline method given in connection with each topic in the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* the teacher should have no difficulty in formulating a logical method for the presenting of any topic in the grammar Course. By this means it is hoped that these outlines will prove helpful to the teacher, without leading to mere imitation in the method of lesson presentation.

In the following outlines of lesson plans, one chief aim has been to keep in view the principle that learning is a process of discrimination; or, in other words, that any fact presented to the pupil will be best understood, not merely through an examination of its characteristics, but by an additional comparison with that which it is not. In order, therefore, to furnish such means of comparison, various grammatical facts are either taught in conjunction (compare objects and completions, page 153), or in contrast with facts already taught.

While, however, recognizing the value of comparison as a process of learning, we must remember, on the other

hand, that the mental grasp of young pupils is limited, especially when they are dealing with reflective materials. No lesson should be overloaded with detail for the sake of comparison. For example, although it might seem an advantage for the purposes of comparison to teach assertive, interrogative, and imperative sentences in a single lesson, it will be found better with young pupils to confine the comparison first to assertive and interrogative sentences, and later to teach the imperative sentence through comparison with the two then known types.

THE SENTENCE

Aim: To teach the grammatical conception of a sentence.

I. Preparation

By oral composition develop from the pupils such groups of words as the following:

1. John broke the chalk.
2. The tin cup
3. The boys play ball.
4. On the window

II. Development

Step 1. Present the lesson problem by questioning the pupils as follows: What are you told about John in the first group? Are you told anything about the tin cup by the second group? What must we add in order to make this group tell us something? Is group 3 like group 1 or group 2? Why? Question similarly concerning group 4.

Have the pupils point out which groups tell us something and which do not.

Step 2. Developing exercise:

1. The pony ran into the yard.
2. Mary lost her gloves.
3. A jackal and a partridge
4. The minstrel boy to the war has gone.
5. The lion saw a mouse.
6. Under an apple tree
7. Only a glass slipper
8. Poor Cinderella had to stay at home.

Have the pupils examine such groups as the above, and arrange them under two heads as follows:

I	*II*
Groups of words telling something about some person or thing.	*Groups of words not telling something about some person or thing.*

Step 3. Give the technical name, SENTENCE, for a group of words which tells something about some person or thing, or expresses a complete thought.

Step 4. Have the pupils state in their own words, on the basis of the above examples, what they understand by a sentence.

III. Application

Work Exercise III, page 2 of the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* etc.

IV. Definition

On the basis of all previous exercises, formulate with the pupils the *grammatical definition* of a sentence.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES ACCCRDING TO FORM

ASSERTIVE AND INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

I. Preparation

1. Review the pupils' knowledge of the sentence, by having them distinguish between sentences and groups of words not expressing a complete thought, using such examples as the following:

Dogs bark.
The wind is piping loud.
Book desk
Not a drum was heard.
The man at the door

2. Arrange these on the board under the following heads:

I	*II*
Sentences	*Not sentences*

II. Development

1. Present such examples as:

(*a*) The man was coming to the house.
(*b*) Was the man coming to the house?
(*c*) The boy is at the door.
(*d*) Is the boy at the door?

Develop that (*b*) and (*d*) are also sentences.

Proceed by asking such questions as: Is the speaker of the (*b*) group of words thinking or is he speaking without thinking? About whom is he thinking? What is he thinking about the man? Since he expresses his thought in the (*b*) group of words, what may we call the group? (A sentence.) Question similarly about (*d*).

2. Lead the pupils to compare the thoughts expressed by these pairs of sentences, and develop that the one thought is expressed as a statement while the other is expressed as a question. Develop by asking such questions as: About whom is the thought expressed in the first sentence? In the second sentence? How does the first sentence express a thought about the man? What does it tell, or state, about the man? How does the second sentence express a thought about the man? What does it ask about the man?

3. Have the pupils arrange the results under the following heads:

I	*II*
Sentences making statements	*Sentences asking questions*

4. Developing exercise:

Have the pupils classify, as above, such sentences as:

They reached the landing-place in safety.
What does he want?
Will you be at school to-morrow?
We have watered the garden.

See also the developing exercise on page 10 of the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar.*

5. Give the technical names, ASSERTIVE sentence and INTERROGATVE sentence.

6. Have the pupils describe in their own words, by a reference to the above examples, the nature of each kind of sentence.

III. Application

Have the pupils work an Exercise with other examples assigned by the teacher.

IV. Definition

Formulate with the pupils definitions for the assertive sentence and the interrogative sentence.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

I. Preparation

Review briefly the pupils' knowledge of the sentence and the kinds of sentences; present or develop from the class orally, a number of simple assertive sentences such as the following; have the pupils explain why they are assertive.

The top of the desk is broken.
The little boy hit the ball.
The sun rises in the east.
etc., etc.

II. Development

1. Lead pupils to select the subject in the first sentence by asking them about what thing the statement is made, and what part of the sentence represents this thing, finally having a pupil come forward and underline with white chalk this part of the sentence.

2. Next, lead pupils to select the predicate by asking them what statement is made about the top of the desk, and what part of the sentence represents what has been stated about it, finally having a pupil underline this part with red chalk.

3. Proceed in like manner with the other presented sentences.

4. Lead pupils to notice that each sentence has been divided into two parts, the one denoting the person or thing about which the statement is made, and the other part showing what is stated about this person or thing. Develop these facts by asking such questions as:

About what person or thing is a statement made in the first sentence? In the second? In the third? What part of the sentence represents these? What is stated about the top of the desk? What is stated about the little boy? About the sun? What part of the sentence shows what is stated about these?

Into how many parts has each sentence been divided? What does the first part of each sentence show? What does the second part show?

5. Developing exercise:

Give other sentences such as:

Birds fly.
The leader of the pack sprang for the colt's throat.
A pale young man was sitting by the window.

Have pupils point out (*a*) the part showing about what a statement is made, and (*b*) the part that shows what is stated. Indicate the results, as follows:

Part denoting the person or thing spoken about	*Part denoting what is stated or asserted*
Birds	fly
The leader of the pack	sprang for the colt's throat

6. Give the technical names—SUBJECT and PREDICATE.

7. Have the pupils state in their own words (*a*) what the subject denotes, (*b*) what the predicate denotes.

III. Application

Have pupils work the Exercises on page 11 of the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar.*

IV. Definition

Formulate, with the pupils, definitions for subject and predicate.

NOTE.—In a subsequent lesson, introduce sentences in which the subject is not at the beginning.

BARE SUBJECT AND BARE PREDICATE

I. Preparation

If the pupils have not already been taught the grouping or subdividing of sentences in connection with their reading and composition, they should be given special exercises on this, prior to the present lesson. (See pages 12 and 13 of the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar.*) Possessing this knowledge, the pupils may be prepared for the present lesson by having them subdivide given sentences containing complete verbs, as follows:

(Officers) (from the garrison) (came) (to his bedside) (to ask his orders).
(Large) (flags) (on the roof) (waved) (slowly) (in the breeze).
(Small) (boys) (on the street) (ran) (quickly) (after it).

II. Development

1. Have pupils discover the bare predicate as an essential part of the predicate.

Ask such questions as: Why do you say that the first example is a sentence? What is its subject? What is its predicate? Into what subdivisions is the predicate divided?

Will thought be expressed if we omit the subdivision *to ask his orders?*

Officers from the garrison came to his bedside (. . .).

Will thought be expressed if we omit *to his bedside?*

Officers from the garrison came (. . .) to ask his orders.

Will thought be expressed if we omit *came?*

Officers from the garrison (. . .) to his bedside to ask his orders.

Examine the other predicates, leading the pupils to select the essential part in each.

2. Develop, in like manner, the bare subject as the essential part of the subject; or, better still, let the pupils discover for themselves that there is a like condition in the subject part.

3. Developing exercise:

Have pupils examine similar examples and select the essential part of the subject and the predicate, using such sentences as:

Messengers from the camp came to the city to report the battle.

Small birds in the trees sang sweetly every morning.

Our dragoons moved up to support them.

4. Give technical names BARE SUBJECT and BARE PREDICATE to these essential parts.

5. Have pupils state in their own words what they understand by bare subject and bare predicate.

III. Application

Give sentences from which pupils are to select the bare subject and the bare predicate, gradually introducing sentences with only the essential parts, and others with transitive and copula verbs. Have pupils use some model of analysis by which they may indicate the subject and the predicate—bare and complete. (See section on analysis, page 103.)

IV. Definition

Formulate with the pupils definitions for bare subject and bare predicate.

CHAPTER IV

PARTS OF SPEECH

THE NOUN

THE teacher begins: I am going to ask a certain boy to stand up; how shall I let the particular boy know that I mean him? (Develop "name him" or "call out his name".) Well, I shall do so: "John, stand up, please". How did this person know that I meant him? Which word is used to name the boy I meant? What kind of word, then, is the word *John?* We shall write down what I said, and underline the word that is a name, thus:

1. *John*, stand up, please.

Now, I am going to ask a certain girl to bring me something that she has in her desk. How will the particular girl that I am going to ask know that I mean her? (You will name her.) Well, "Mary" is the girl I mean. What kind of word is the word *Mary?* (Name) And how will the person, Mary, know what the thing is that I wish her to bring me? (You will name the thing.) Let me tell her now. "Mary, bring up your pen." What word did I use to name the thing I wanted Mary to bring? What kind of word is *pen?* We shall write down what I said, and underline the two words that are names, thus:

2. *Mary*, bring up your *pen*.

What kind of word do you say *John* is in the first sentence? What kind is *Mary? pen?* How are all these words alike? (They are all names.)

Point out the words in the following sentences that are names of persons or things:

1. The man has a dog.
2. The ball broke a window.
3. James mended his desk.

A word, such as *John, pen, man, dog, desk,* etc., which is used as a name of anything is called a NOUN.

Work Exercise 27, page 181. Formulate definition.

Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with suitable nouns:

1. The dog bit the .
2. My cousin lives in .
3. John brought two to school.
4. of Normandy defeated at Hastings.
5. Gold is more precious than .
6. Bricks are made of .
7. We saw in the woods.
8. Helen has a new .
9. Oranges come from .
10. We heard a sing.

After the pupils have been taught the noun, pronoun, and verb, and have learned to distinguish complete from incomplete verbs, they are next to distinguish the two completing adjuncts—object and subjective completion, and the various modifiers. This will furnish a basis for proceeding to a study of the adjective and the adverb. (See *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* pages 153-5.

OBJECTS AND COMPLETIONS

Aim: To enable pupils to distinguish the two completing adjuncts—Object and Subjective Completion.

I. Preparation

Have pupils classify as complete or incomplete the bare predicates, or verbs, in a number of presented sentences.

II. Development

1. Present the sentences containing incomplete verbs in pairs, as follows:

Mary tore paper.
Mary was sick.

The boy broke the stick.
The boy is honest.

2. Comparison of verbs.

Place the lesson problem before the pupils by having them compare the verbs *tore* and *was;* note that *tore* represents Mary as acting, or doing something, while *was* does not.

3. Comparison of completing adjuncts.

Next lead pupils to compare the completing adjuncts *paper* and *sick,* and to notice that the completing part *paper* denotes something upon which Mary acted, while the completing part *sick* describes Mary. Examine in like manner the next pair of completing adjuncts.

4. Arrange these results under the following heads:

I	*II*
Completing part represents something acted upon.	*Completing part describes the one denoted by the subject.*

5. Developing exercise:

Have the pupils work the Exercise on page 152 of the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* classifying the results as in Step 4.

6. Give the names OBJECT and SUBJECTIVE COMPLETION for these classes.

Have pupils work Exercises on page 154 of the *Ontario* of an object and of a subjective completion.

III. Application

Have the pupils state in their own words the nature *Public School Composition and Grammar.*

IV. Definition

Formulate with the class definitions for object and subjective completion.

THE ADVERB

So far as grammar is concerned, the ultimate object of a series of lessons on the adverb is the development of quick observation and full appreciation of the various modifications introduced into the expression of the processes of thought by this important part of speech. And this development should never be lost sight of during these lessons. A knowledge of definitions and rules and classifications is useful solely, or at least mainly, just so far as it contributes to the power of thinking and the ability to comprehend thought. For instance, high school entrance pupils who see only the time element in the adverbial clause in the sentence, "When he saw the policeman he ran away", can hardly be said to have the proper development in thinking which even an elementary course in analysis should give. Indeed, the training of such pupils has been far wrong, if it has led them to attach the chief importance to form rather than to function in the exercises in analysis and parsing. This is the main weakness in much of the poor teaching of grammar.

Lessons on the adverb may be based in succession on the following topics, at such stages as are indicated in the text-book:

1. The function of some adverbs as modifying verbs
2. The function of some adverbs as modifying adjectives
3. The function of some adverbs as modifying adverbs
4. Adverbial phrases and clauses
5. The classification of adverbs
6. Conjunctive adverbs
7. The comparison of adverbs
8. The interrogative adverb, the adverbial objective, and the infinitive as adverb
9. The use of the adverb as modifying prepositions and conjunctions, or phrases and clauses
10. The adverbial predicate adjective
11. The position of the adverb.

LESSON I

Preparation.—Briefly review the adjective as a word modifying nouns and pronouns. Use one sentence only, as "James has a red book". This is written on the black-board.

Pupils' Problem.—To discover a class of words not yet known and to find out their grammatical use and name.

Presentation.—Having previously arranged privately with a pupil—let us call him John—to perform certain acts, the teacher begins:

"Now, John, please." At this John rises, comes forward, and walks once across the room at an ordinary

pace in front of the class. The teacher says: "Tell me in a single sentence, as short a sentence as possible, what John did. You tell, Willie". The teacher works to get the answer "John walked", which she writes on the board as No. 1.

"Now John, again, please." John repeats his walk, but this time at a markedly rapid rate. The teacher says: "Tell me in a single sentence what John did just now, Jennie". The answer comes, "John walked fast". The teacher writes this as No. 2. The teacher asks: "Do we need this extra word *fast,* Mary? Why do we need it? What is the use of this extra word *fast,* George?"

"Once more, John, please." John walks across again, but this time slowly. The teacher questions as with No. 2 and also obtains Nos. 4 and 5. The board now shows:

James has a red book.

1. John walked.
2. John walked fast.
3. John walked slowly.
4. John came here.
5. John came early.

Comparison and Abstraction.—The teacher proceeds: "Look at your very first sentence here (pointing). What do we call *red?"* (Adjective) "What word does it modify? What kind of word is *book?* What kind of words do adjectives modify? What did we say we were going to try to do in this lesson? Find a word in No. 2 whose grammatical use and name you have not yet learned. (When the answer is received underline *fast.*) Is the word *fast* necessary in order to make a complete sentence? (See No. 1.) Is *fast,* then, a principal word or a modifying word? With which other word is it directly connected in sense (*i.e.* which makes sense, "John fast" or "walks

fast")? What word, then, does *fast* modify? What grammatical name do you give to words like "walked"? Ask similar questions for Nos. 3, 4, and 5. Underline *slowly, here, early.* In what respect are all these modifiers alike? (They all modify verbs.) Now, you said that adjectives are modifying words. What kind of words do adjectives modify? Are *fast, slowly, here,* and *early,* adjectives? Why not? What shall we call these words that modify verbs? Have we any name for them yet? Words such as *fast, slowly, here,* and *early,* are called ADVERBS.

Develop the fact that these words modify the verbs by telling the *manner, place,* or *time* of the action. Dictate a few suitable sentences and require pupils to pick out all the adverbs and to tell what verb each adverb modifies and how it modifies it; that is, whether it tells the time, or the place, or the manner of the action.

LESSON II

The teacher writes on the board:

John is a *tall* boy. He is *tall.*
John studies *hard.*

By suitable questioning the teacher proceeds to review the function and relation of each of the italicized words, and then summarizes as follows: What two kinds of modifying words have we now learned? (The adjective modifying a noun or a pronoun and the adverb modifying a verb.)

To-day we are going to discover the grammatical use and name of another class of words.

The teacher uses three objects, preferably objects of some intrinsic interest to pupils of the Grade being taught,

and develops such sentences as follow, writing them on the board after developing each:

1. This apple is red.	1. This book is big.
2. This apple is very red.	2. This book is very big.

In developing the first and second sentences the teacher may proceed as follows: Taking up her first apple she asks: "What colour is this apple? Describe it in a short sentence". (The teacher writes the answer as No. 1 on the board.) Taking up the first apple again the teacher says: "You said that this apple is red. Will the same description do equally well for this second apple? Can you add a word to the description in the first sentence, and give me a new sentence which will be a more suitable description of the second apple?" (The teacher writes the answer as No. 2.)

"Class: What word describes the first apple? Mary? How is the word *red* related to the word *apple?*" (It describes the thing represented by the word *apple.*) "What kind of word, then, is *red*—a principal word, or a modifying word? What kind of word does *red* modify?" (Noun) "To what grammatical class of words does *red,* therefore, belong?"

"Now, examine the second sentence. What word there describes in some measure the second apple? What word did you add in this sentence to make a better description of this apple? Could the word *very* be left out without destroying the sentence? Is it then a principal word or a modifying word? What word does it modify? To what class of words does *red* belong? What kind of word, then, does *very* modify here? What kinds of modifying words did you learn of in previous lessons?" (Modifiers of nouns and pronouns, called adjectives; and modifiers of

verbs, called adverbs) "Does *very* modify a noun, or a pronoun, or a verb? What kind of word does it modify? Have you yet learned the name of words that modify adjectives? We shall presently learn it, but first point out, in the following sentences, the words that modify the meaning of adjectives:

That apple is too sour.
We have much sweeter apples.
This orange is quite bitter.
We like a more gentle horse.
These birds have perfectly white breasts."

Words such as *very, too, much, quite, more,* and *perfectly,* when used to modify the meaning of adjectives, are also called ADVERBS.

Write out Exercise 4, page 55, of the text-book, in the following manner:

1. *Nightly*: adv. mod. verb *tormented.*

LESSON III

Without having previously assigned the matter for preparation, and without having the text-books open in the class, the teacher should develop the use of adverbs as modifying adverbs. Several sentences may be used, arranged in two groups as follows:

I	II
He is a *very* sick man.	He ran *very* well.
She is *quite* happy.	He ran *quite* slowly.

Only one sentence should be written at a time on the board, the adverb being underlined. Pupils should be expected to parse as an adverb the underlined word in each sentence of the first group as it is put down and show the

relation of this adverb. After the adverb in each sentence of the first group has been parsed, the teacher should develop that the underlined word in each sentence of the second group is also a modifying word, but in this case modifying not an adjective but an adverb.

The teacher develops the fact that the underlined words of the second group are alike in that they modify adverbs, and now gives the name ADVERB to them also.

The teacher now asks: "What did you learn about some adverbs in the first lesson on adverbs? In the second? What have you learned so far in the third lesson? State in a single short sentence the three uses you have found for adverbs in sentences".

LESSON IV

The teacher develops the facts stated on pages 203-4 of the *Public School Composition and Grammar* and assigns Exercise 40 for seat work.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

After the pupil has mastered the analysis of a simple sentence and has been taught the adjective and the adverb, he is next to study the composition of complex and compound sentences. Through the study of the complex sentence he will secure the comparative knowledge of subordinate clauses and phrases which is necessary as a basis for the study of the two remaining parts of speech—the preposition and the conjunction. The complex sentence is to be studied before the compound for two reasons: In its general structure the complex sentence is identical with the already known type, the simple sentence, and is easily approached through the pupil's ability to analyse the simple sentence. (See outline on teaching of

the complex sentence given below.) Secondly, the compound sentence, as a combination of independent statements, can be best understood by the pupil after he has distinguished between dependent and independent statements in his study of the complex sentence.

NOTES ON THE TEACHING OF THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

I. Preparation

Review the analysis of simple sentences by having pupils analyse such sentences as:

Cross dogs bite.
I have money.

II. Development

1. To bring the lesson problem before the pupils, present in conjunction with one of these sentences, a complex sentence having a clausal part similar in function to some part of the simple sentence; for example—modifier of the subject, as:

Cross dogs bite.
Dogs *that are cross* bite.

Have the pupils analyse this complex sentence in comparison with the simple sentence. Emphasize (by underlining or by brackets) these modifying parts.

2. Lead pupils to discover that, in the second sentence, this modifying part is a statement. Develop by asking such questions as: What part of speech is *bite?* What is its subject? What part of speech is *are?* What is its subject? What is its completion? Of what use in the whole sentence is the statement *that are cross?*

3. Teach the fact that this statement is dependent.

Develop by asking such questions as: What is the complete subject of the second sentence? What is the bare subject? The modifier of the subject? What have we learned that this modifier contains? To what word in the sentence must this statement be related? Upon what word then does this statement depend?

4. Extend this treatment to other examples of simple and complex sentences containing similar parts, as follows:

He did the work *well.*
He did the work *as they ordered.*

I have *money.*
I have *what is necessary.*

Develop, in a manner similar to the above, the fact that the second sentences in these groups also contain statements that are used in the sentence as parts of the predicate and, therefore, depend upon some words in the predicate. Apply the name DEPENDENT STATEMENT to these.

5. Developing exercise:

Give exercises containing both simple and complex sentences and test the ability of the pupils to discover dependent statements as parts of the subject or predicate of the whole sentence, and to state upon what they are dependent. In this exercise the dependent clauses should appear only as complete idea-units in the sentence analysis; for example—modifier of subject, modifier of predicate, object, completion, etc.

6. Give the name SIMPLE SENTENCE for a sentence containing a single statement, and the name COMPLEX

SENTENCE for a sentence containing one or more dependent statements.

7. Have pupils tell in their own words what they understand by each of these classes of sentences, and test their knowledge by a reference to the type examples.

III. Application

Have pupils work suitable exercises. (See *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* pages 161 and 162.)

IV. Definition

Formulate with the class definitions for simple sentence and complex sentence.

ADVERB CLAUSES

The teacher writes on the board:

1. **He came yesterday.**
2. **He came when you were away.**

The teacher then asks: "In the first sentence with what word is *yesterday* directly connected? Why do you say so? What part of speech is *came?* What part of speech, then, is *yesterday?*

"Is the clause *when you were away* principal or subordinate? Why? What word does it modify? What part of speech do you call a word that modifies a verb? Then, if this clause has the same use in the sentence as an adverb, what may we call it? Why do you call such a clause an adverb?"

In a similar way, taking the next two pairs of examples given in the text-book, page 168 (one pair at a time), it may be shown that there are clauses that modify adjectives and others that modify adverbs, and that both these are also to be called ADVERB CLAUSES.

Next, the examples in the middle of page 168 of the text-book are to be worked, after which the general principle is formulated.

ADVERB PHRASES

The teacher writes on the board:

1. He came quickly.
2. He came in haste.

The teacher asks: "Is there any difference in meaning between these two statements? What is the difference in form?" (In 2 there is a phrase instead of the word in 1.) "What is the use of the word *quickly* in expressing the thought?" (Tells how he came.) "What is the use of the phrase *in haste?* Compare the use, then, of the two expressions, *quickly* and *in haste.*" (They have the same use.) "With what word is *quickly* most closely connected? What kind of connection is this?" (*Quickly* modifies *came.*) "What part of speech is *came?* What do you call a part of speech that modifies a verb? With what word is the phrase *in haste* most closely connected? What kind of connection is this?" (*In haste* modifies *came.*) "What is the value of this phrase, then, considered as a part of speech? Why do you call the phrase by the same name as you call the word?" (Because it has the same use in the sentence.)

The teacher then writes on the board two or three other pairs of examples (one pair at a time), and develops briefly and rapidly the same conclusion in each case.

The general principle is then formulated that some phrases modify verbs, and the class is told that these are called ADVERB PHRASES.

Next, the teacher writes on the board:

Her heart was heavy with sorrow.
He found the boys ready for the sport.

It is now developed that *with sorrow* modifies *heavy,* and *for the sport* modifies *ready,* and that, since *heavy* and *ready* are adjectives, the two phrases must be adverbs. This fact is then stated as a general principle.

Then, using the two following sentences in the same way, the general principle is reached that there are phrases that modify adverbs and that these also are called adverb phrases:

The bear ran on into the wood.
She climbed up into the garret.

The teacher then reviews the three separate principles reached and summarizes them as in the text-book. The Exercises on pages 153-154 are now to be worked.

In all the examples given above, the attention of the class will be held better if the phrases are underlined at the right moment and the pointer used.

The teacher should particularly remember that it is of very little use to designate a phrase merely by its form; for instance, as prepositional or participial. That does not aid in the interpretation of the thought. From a grammatical point of view, the important question regarding a phrase, a word, or a clause, is: What is its use in the sentence?

THE PREPOSITION

The preparatory step for the teaching of the nature of prepositions consists of a brief review of the nature of phrases beginning with prepositions.

The teacher asks Mary to place one of her books on the teacher's desk, and John to place one of his on the window-sill.

"Which book is Mary's?" (The book on the desk) "Make a complete sentence." "The book on the desk is Mary's." The teacher writes the sentence on the blackboard. "What words tell which book?" The teacher now underlines the phrase. "What do you call a group of words that are used together like this when it is not a clause? What word does this phrase modify? What part of speech is *book?* What kind of phrase is this?

"Let us see how this phrase is made up. What kind of word is *desk?* How do you know? What kind of word is *the?* How do you know? What kind of word is *on?*" The teacher should have the members of the class trained to say, in such cases, "I don't know". Training of this kind prevents guessing and leads the pupil to face directly the fact of his lack of knowledge. He is usually in the proper attitude then to learn the new fact. A desire to learn it has probably been awakened, at least if the preparatory step has been taken in a proper way.

"To-day we are going to learn the use and the grammatical name of *on* and other such words. Let us see some other words that are like *on* in their use. Lend me your book, Willie, please." The teacher puts this book in the desk. "And yours, Annie, please." The teacher puts this book on the floor under the desk. "Which book is Willie's? Make a full sentence." "Which book is Annie's? Make a full sentence." The teacher writes these sentences on the board under the first, and numbers all three. Then he develops rapidly the phrases in numbers 2 and 3, and also the nature of their construction, underlining as before, and concludes with *in* and *under* as two other unknowns. These he underlines.

"Let us see if these words are really necessary. Let us rub out these three words. Now, do the sentences tell

which book is Mary's and which is Willie's, and which is Annie's? Shall we say, then, that these words are necessary or unnecessary parts of the phrases?" The teacher writes on the black-board: *1. Each of these words is necessary in the formation of the phrase.*

As it will probably be impossible to get the term *relation* from a class of beginners, the teacher may use it in the questioning, thus:

"What word in number 1 tells the relation of the book to the desk? What word in number 2 tells the relation of the book to the desk? What word in number 3 tells the relation of the book to the desk? What use now has *on?* What use has *in?* What use has *under?* How are these words alike? Each shows a relation of a book to the desk."

The teacher writes on the black-board: *2. Each of these words shows a relation existing between the two objects, book and desk.*

Now since the word *on* in number 1 shows the relation of the thing represented by the word *book* to the thing represented by the word *desk,* the word *on* is said to connect the words *book* and *desk.*

"In number 2 what words does *in* connect? What part of speech is the word *desk?* What words does *under* connect? What part of speech is the word *desk* here?" The teacher might indicate this connecting value by two curved lines under the sentence, one line joining the preposition to the word preceding with which it is connected, the other joining the preposition to its object.

The teacher writes on the black-board: *3. Each of these words connects a word in its phrase to the word outside of the phrase which the phrase modifies.*

Now, let us review and sum up the different uses we have learned of the particular words we have been studying. The teacher has on the board directly under one another the statements 1, 2, and 3, giving the uses of the words being taught. He now reviews these with the class.

Using the examples on page 174 of the text-book, the teacher may now further develop in a similar way the use of the preposition as an element of some adverb phrases, so as to reach the conclusions given in the text-book, and may finish the work on the preposition for the present in the manner indicated on page 175.

CHAPTER V

DIFFERENT GRAMMATICAL USES OF THE SAME WORD IN DIFFERENT SENTENCES

(*Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar, pp.* 177-8)

THE teacher asks for the definition of a noun and of an adjective, and then writes the following sentences on the black-board:

1. Iron is heavy.
2. The iron wedge is broken.

What part of speech is *Iron* in sentence 1? (Underline) Why? Is there a noun in sentence 2? Which word is it? Why? What is the use of the word *iron* in sentence 2? (Underline) (It tells the kind of wedge.) The teacher may make the use of the word *iron* clear in this case by telling the class that farmers often use big wooden wedges in splitting long logs to make posts or rails. Perhaps this would need to be told before asking the last question, or at least before requiring the answer.

If the word *iron* in sentence 2 describes the particular wedge spoken of, what kind of word is it? Why do you call it an adjective?

What do you say the word *Iron* is in sentence 1? What in sentence 2? What have you learned so far about the word *iron?* (That it can be used in two ways—as a noun and as an adjective.) How do you know, then, what to call the word *iron* when you see it in a sentence? (We give it a name according to its use.) If the word *iron* is used as a name of a thing, we call it a noun; if it is used to describe a thing, we call it an adjective.

Let us see if, like *iron,* any other word can have two uses. What colour is silver? Give me your answer in a sentence. (Silver is white.) (The teacher underlines *Silver.*) What part of speech is *Silver* here? Tell me something that is made of silver. (A brooch) Now make a sentence telling me something about that particular brooch. (The silver brooch is lost.) (The teacher underlines *silver.*) What do you call the word *silver* here? Why? What have you learned about the word *silver?* How did you know what to call *silver* in each case?

The teacher might now develop rapidly with the class sentences with similar twofold uses of a few other words, not representing metals, in order to prevent a faulty generalization. One of such words as leather, clay, brick, stone, might be used instead of silver.

What did you say the use of the word *Iron* is in sentence 1? Why? What in sentence 2? Why? Now look closely at the following sentence (which the teacher puts on the board directly under sentences 1 and 2):

3. They iron the clothes on Tuesday.

Is the word *iron* here a noun? Why not? Is it an adjective? Why not? What is it? Why?

If these last two questions might cause uncertainty and lead to guessing, the teacher should proceed as follows:

Is this a sentence? Why? What is the subject? Why? What is the predicate? Why? Which word in the predicate more particularly represents what is asserted about the persons spoken of? What part of speech is *iron* then?

What different uses of the word *iron* have you now learned? How did you know in each case what to call this word? Did you find any other words than *iron* that have

two uses? Let us see if any other word has three uses. State the uses of the word *brick* in the following sentences:

1. That brick was made in Milton.
2. John owns a brick house in London.
3. I shall brick my house this fall.

Now examine the following expressions:

1. He came before I left.
2. He came before dinner.

How many clauses have you in sentence 1? What are they? What is the use of *before?* What do you call *before* in this sentence? Why?

How many clauses in sentence 2? Why is *before dinner* not a clause? What is it? What then is the use of *before?* What do you call it in this sentence? Why?

What have you now learned altogether about *before?* Try if you can use the word *after* in the same way.

In what respect then are these two words alike? In what respect are the words *iron, silver, brick, before,* and *after* alike?

Do you think there may be any other words having two or more uses? How will you know in any sentences what name to give to any of these words? What then determines the grammatical name of any word in a sentence?

Follow this with the Exercises in the text-book, page 178.

WORDS WITH DOUBLE VALUE AND RELATION IN THE SAME SENTENCE

In the first lessons on words having double functions and relations in the same sentence, it would be well to prepare the class for the new idea by referring to cases of double functions and relations in the world of persons and

things outside of the school. Thus a man may be both secretary and treasurer of a board of trustees or a manufacturing company—the same man with different functions and a separate name on account of each; or a man may both sell cloth and make it up into clothes for men or boys, and he calls himself therefore a merchant-tailor. Similarly, a girl in a family stands in a different relation to her father and has different duties in relation to him from her relation and duties to her brother, and so she is called a daughter of the one and a sister of the other. But perhaps the best preparation for understanding the double function of a conjunctive pronoun or conjunctive adverb is the observation of the double use of a layer of mortar in a wall. It will be seen that the mortar is not a mere joining element, connecting one brick with another, but that it, itself, forms a considerable fraction of the length and height of the wall. In the same way a conjunctive pronoun or an adverb not only joins clauses, but also enters into the composition of the whole sentence as representing a part of the meaning to be expressed.

THE INFINITIVE

I

The teacher writes on the board the following sentences, underlining the required words:

1. Children *study lessons.*
2. *Studying* is hard work.
3. *Studying lessons* is hard work.

In sentence 1 what part of speech is *study*? What kind of verb is it? (Transitive) How do you know that it is transitive?

What are the two parts of the second sentence? What parts of speech may be subjects? Is this a pronoun or a noun? Why do you call it a noun? What is a noun? (A noun is the name of anything,—text-book, page 21.) Now we do not usually speak of studying as a thing, but as an action or process. And yet actions and processes are often spoken of as things. Take the case of a number of boys out camping. On a certain morning they have not yet decided how to spend the day and one of the boys says impatiently, "Oh, let us try fishing, or swimming, or running, anything but loafing about the camp". You will see that fishing and swimming and running and loafing are all spoken of here as things, although this fact is somewhat obscured by writing *anything* as one word. In the same way we may regard *Studying* as the name of a thing, and therefore as a noun.

What is the complete subject of sentence 3? What is the chief word in this complete subject which we may call the bare subject? The bare subject of what? (is hard work) What parts of speech can be subjects? Is *Studying* a noun or a pronoun? As a noun, what is its function and relation? (It is the subject nominative of *is*.)

Now look at the word *Studying* in sentence 3 again. Does it enter into relation with any other word than *is*? (lessons) What seems to be the use of the word *Studying* in relation to the word *lessons*? Compare with *study lessons* in sentence 1. (It seems to be a verb with *lessons* as its object.) Why do you think so? (*Studying* stands for an action that is represented as passing over to an object.) What two uses then has *Studying* in sentence 3? What is its relation and use as a noun? What as a verb?

The teacher now writes on the board the sentences at the bottom of page 186 in the text-book and develops the

conclusions 1 and 2 at the top of page 187. The examples 1, 2, 3, 4, given next on the page are examined, a summary made, and the name given. (*The word "Notice" in the text-book is always addressed to the teacher. Usually, whatever immediately follows it is first to be developed by the teacher, not told to or read by the pupil.*)

In dealing with the work at the top of page 72 the teacher at first writes on the board only the one sentence,

Studying is hard work.

The teacher then asks some one to express the idea in the word *Studying* in another way. (To study) The teacher then writes,

To study is hard work;

and develops that *To study* is used precisely in the same way as *Studying,* that is, as a noun and the subject of *is.* Then take "To study lessons is hard work" and show as in the corresponding sentence—"Studying lessons is hard work"—that *To study,* like *Studying,* has two uses, a noun use in relation to *is* and a verb use in relation to *lessons.* Similarly show also that in "He dislikes to wait here", *to wait* has the use of a noun in relation to *dislikes* and the use of a verb in relation to *here.* (*To wait* denotes an *action* as going on in a certain *place,* so that *here* is an adverb modifying *wait* as a verb.)

The teacher now summarizes the preceding results, developing, not telling, statements 1 and 2 at the bottom of page 187.

The pupils work Exercises A and B, page 188 of the *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar.*

INFINITIVES AS ADVERBS

II

The teacher writes on the board:

John came to cut the wood.

What is the subject of this sentence? The predicate? The bare predicate? Has *came* an object? Does it describe an action that passes over to an object? What then is the value of *to cut the wood?* (Modifier of *came*) What is the chief part of this phrase? (*to cut*) Why? (Because *the wood* is subordinate to *cut,* being its object.) What value, then, has *to cut?* (Verb) Why? What do you call a verb in this form? Let us see presently whether it has any other value than that of a verb. Examine this sentence:

John came to see.

What is the subject? The predicate? The bare predicate? Judging by the form and the meaning of *see* what do you call *to see?* (Infinitive verb) Underline. What is the chief use of *to see* in the sentence? (It modifies *came.*) Why do you say that it modifies *came?* What part of speech is *came?* When a word modifies a verb, what part of speech is that word? Therefore, what part of speech is *to see?* Why? What two values then has *to see* in this sentence? (Verb and adverb) Now, compare *to see* here, with *to cut* in the preceding example. What difference do you note between them as verbs? (*cut,* transitive; *see,* intransitive) What other value besides verb value did you say *to see* has? Has *to cut* a similar value? Why? (The teacher might, perhaps, show that *to cut,* alone, does not give the complete adverbial value

intended by the speaker, because an object is needed; while *to see* is complete, not requiring an object.)

What is the chief value, then, that you have found these infinitives to have? Why do you call them adverbs?

The teacher writes on the board:

We are ready to do this.
We are ready to go.

The teacher develops in a similar way to that followed in the preceding paragraphs that *to do* and *to go* are both infinitives and adverbs, the difference in the verb value being that *to do* is transitive and the difference in the adverb value being that *to do,* as adverb, does not give the complete meaning without *this.* No emphasis should be laid on this difference, however. The matter to emphasize is that *to do* and *to go* are adverbs since they modify the adjective *ready.*

Now what have you learned about infinitives in this whole lesson? (That infinitives are sometimes adverbs because they modify both verbs and adjectives.)

INFINITIVES AS ADJECTIVES

III

The teacher writes on the board:

1. **I saw a house to let.**
2. **The time to do this had passed.**

In sentence 1 what is the subject? The bare predicate? What is the value and relation of *house?* With what word is *to let* most closely connected in sense? How would the sense of the sentence be affected if *to let* were left out? (We should not know anything in particular about the house.) What, then, is the use of *to let* in

regard to the meaning? (The teacher develops the answer that *to let* describes the house in some such way as the word *vacant* would do.) If *to let* describes the house, what is the value of *to let?* Why? (The teacher develops the use of *to do* in the same way, and then summarizes the three uses of infinitives as nouns, as adverbs, and as adjectives.)

The teacher now puts down on the board the sentences 1, 2, 3, 4, on the lower half of page 189, develops that there are three forms of infinitives, and gives the names. He then writes down the last three examples on the page, develops the three points referred to in Notes 1 and 2, and follows this with Exercise 31. The classifying called for is on the basis of *form.*

The pupils work the Exercise on page 190.

VERBAL ADJECTIVES OR PARTICIPLES

The teacher writes on the board:

1. The men chop wood.
2. The men chopping are his brothers.
3. The men chopping wood are his brothers.

The teacher will require pupils to imagine the following situation. A and B are looking at two little groups of men in the lumber woods. One group is chopping and the other sawing. A and B have been talking about another person, C, whose two brothers were said to be in the woods. "Yes", says A to B, "the men chopping are C's brothers".

Now, class, why did A put the word *chopping* into his sentence? (To distinguish the men he was talking of from the others.) How did he distinguish them? (By describing what they were doing.) To what word then is

the word *chopping* most closely related? How is it related, that is, what is its use in relation to the word *men?* (It modifies *men.*) What part of speech is it? Has *chopping* any suggestion of verb value? Why?

The teacher now develops that *chopping,* in sentence 3, has a similar adjective value to *chopping,* in sentence 2, the difference being that the description is fuller in sentence 3. The verbal value of *chopping* is made more manifest by the addition of *wood,* which may be compared with *wood* in sentence 1 and called object.

By means of the examples at the top of page 191, the teacher proceeds to develop points 1 and 2, gives the name, and assigns Exercise 32.

THE CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUN

The teacher writes on the board:

Who won the prize?
1. That is the boy. He won the prize.
2. That is the boy who won the prize.

What is the subject of "He won the prize"? What part of speech is *He?* Why? What word in "who won the prize" also stands for *boy?* What part of speech then, is *who?* Why is *who* a pronoun?

What is the nature of the statement, "He won the prize", in relation to "That is the boy"; that is, is "He won the prize" independent of the other, or is it dependent on it as having the value of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb?

What is the nature of the statement, "who won the prize", in relation to "That is the boy"?

Now if "He won the prize" is independent of the preceding statement and "who won the prize" is dependent on the preceding statement, which of the two is more

closely connected with the preceding statement? How is this difference in closeness of connection shown in the language used? (*Who* takes the place of *He.*) Now because *who* has a connecting value which *He* has not, *who* is said to be a conjunction as well as a pronoun, that is, it is called a CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUN.

In a similar way, but more rapidly, the teacher may work out the fact that *which* is a conjunctive pronoun. The following sentences may be useful here:

Which dog bit the girl?
1. This is the dog. He bit the girl.
2. This is the dog which bit the girl.

Pupils now work the brief exercise at the top of page 197. After this the teacher may call attention to the position of *whom,* showing by a little development exercise that nouns and ordinary pronouns as objects appear in English after their verbs; but that conjunctive pronouns, when objects of verbs, are put at the beginning of their clauses because of their additional use as conjunctions.

The teacher may now develop from the following sentences the fact that *who* may represent either a speaker, a person addressed, or a person spoken of, and so *who* when used as subject may take a verb of the first, or second, or third person.

I, who see it, know better.
Thou, who seest it, knowest better.
He, who sees it, knows better.

Exercise 36 on page 197 is now to be worked, after which the definition may be formulated.

Further facts in regard to the conjunctive pronoun may readily be developed by the teacher, at the proper time, by the use of suitable exercises.

THE CONJUNCTIVE ADVERB

The teacher writes on the board:

Where did he stand?
1. This is the place. He stood here.
2. This is the place where he stood.

The teacher now develops in order the following facts:

(*a*) That the sentence "He stood here" is not connected by any word with the sentence "This is the place".

(*b*) That *here* is an adverb modifying *stood.*

(*c*) That the sentence "where he stood" has the same meaning in this connection as the sentence "He stood here".

(*d*) That the sentence "where he stood" is directly connected by the word *where* with the sentence "This is the place".

(*e*) That this word *where,* as here used, is a conjunction.

(*f*) That it presents the same idea as *here* in the first sentence, that it also modifies the verb *stood* and is, therefore, an adverb.

Now the teacher writes on the board the following sentences:

1. The apple lies where it fell.
2. The boys ran when the man shouted.

It is next developed that "The apple lies where it fell" is equivalent to "The apple lies in the place in which it fell", and that *where* in the original sentence has the adverb value of both the phrases in the substitute expression, as well as the value of a conjunction connecting "The apple lies" and "where it fell"; also that "The boys ran when the man shouted" is equivalent to "The

boys ran for the reason that the man shouted", and that *when* has the adverb value of the phrase, as well as the conjunctive value of *that.* Similarly the conjunctive and the adverb values of *therefore* and *consequently* may be presented separately, each word being shown to be equivalent to " and for this reason " where the *and* represents the conjunctive value and *for this reason* the adverb value. The name CONJUNCTIVE ADVERB is now given. Then Exercise 41 is worked and the definition may be formulated.

In teaching conjunctive adverbs, it is important that the pupil should not be left with the impression, as is too often the case, that the second clause is necessarily an adverb. The examples in the text show that it may be an adverb, an adjective, or an independent clause; but it may be a noun also, as in the sentence " I know where he stood".

CHAPTER VI

CLASSIFICATION

In classifying, we must remember that likeness is the basis and comparison the process. There are many things which may be compared, but the comparison must be limited to those features which are related to the end in view. For example, if out of one hundred boxes we wish to select one to hold a large amount of clothing, size will be compared, but if we wish to select a box to use in surmounting a high fence, then height and strength only will be considered in the process of comparing.

In classifying the parts of speech, the first step is to establish the basis of the classification. The common point of view is that use in the sentence is the proper basis. Verbs are classified according as they are used to express action or merely to join an attribute word to the subject, while the former are further classified according as they are used to express action passing over from doer to receiver, or as remaining with the doer. Nouns are classified according as they are used to refer to each member of a class, or to a particular member of the class; or according as they stand for concrete objects, or not; or according as they refer to a group of individuals considered as a whole, or to the members of a group singly.

There is nothing to hinder us from classifying nouns on the basis of the number of letters in each, or on the basis of whether they refer to animate or inanimate things, or on the basis of indicating earthly things and spiritual things; but we do not consider these classifications of any

logical value, and classifying on these bases would not improve our use of language nor extend our knowledge of it to any appreciable extent.

As a matter of fact we classify nouns or any other part of speech on the basis of those conditions which determine the language in the first place. Thus we have nouns classified into proper and common, because it was necessary, when the individuals in a class became very large, to distinguish one member of the class from the others; the conditions existed before the different kinds of nouns were used. So also sex is responsible for the existence of pairs of names which we found convenient to give to pairs of beings who differ mainly in this particular. The sex conditions are responsible for the gender nouns, and we classify them accordingly.

When we came to use pronouns, conditions made it necessary to use three kinds, those referring to the person speaking, those referring to the person spoken to, those referring to the person or thing spoken about; hence we have three classes. If there had been any other possible person or thing which could be referred to in a fourth way, there would have been four classes. No such fourth condition exists.

The pronouns of the third person refer to persons or things in various ways, according to existing conditions. The speaker chooses at times to refer to the person or thing spoken about in an indefinite way, at other times in a definite way, and again in a questioning way. Thus three classes are made necessary.

The peculiarity of the conjunctive pronoun is that it has an additional function—that of joining a clause to the word which the clause modifies. In other respects the conjunctive pronoun comes under the class of pronouns

which refer to the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person spoken about. When used with the first person, it might be considered to be a conjunctive personal pronoun; when referring to persons spoken about in a definite way, it might properly be considered a conjunctive demonstrative pronoun. In any case, the number of classes of pronouns must correspond to the number of classes of conditions. Any more or any less than this is artificial.

The steps in a lesson on classification will agree with the steps given for the formal grammar lesson, pages 19-21. The process of generalization in classification has four stages: first, that of comparison of each individual case with one considered as a type; second, that of comparison of an individual case with the group obtained in the first stage; third, that of comparison of an individual case with the group known by a given name; fourth, that of comparison of an individual case with the generalization as expressed in a definition. This last step corresponds to the step of application.

We shall proceed to illustrate the various steps in a lesson on the classification of pronouns.

DEPT. OF EDUCATION
HISTORICAL COLLECTION

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS

LESSON I

Aim: To understand clearly the meaning and use of these various pronouns.

MATTER	METHOD
1. Pronouns represent persons or things without naming them.	1. Review pronouns by writing sentences on the black-board containing typical pronouns of the first, second, and third persons, in various relations—subjective, objective, possessive; for example: I, the teacher, must write well. I will send it to you. Thou, the teacher, shouldst write well. They cannot make me tell her. He, the teacher, writes well. My brother won a prize. Ask the pupils to name the pronouns and underline them as named.
2. Pronouns refer to one or another of three classes of persons; the speaker, the	2. Ask the pupils to consider how many classes of persons there are in the room

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS—*Continued*

MATTER	METHOD
person spoken to, the person or thing spoken about.	in relation to what is being said. (The speaker and the person spoken to) Remind them that all others may be classed as those spoken about. How many classes of people altogether? (Three) Name them. Select the pronouns from the above sentences, according as they refer to one or another of these classes. Arrange in columns, thus: I you it I thou her me they my he
3. All the pronouns in group one refer to the speaker; all in group two refer to the person spoken to; all in group three refer to the person or thing spoken about.	3. Ask pupils to say to whom each pronoun in group one refers, in group two, in group three. Write the statement expressing the essential truth about each group on the black-board. Leave these statements there for reference and future use.
4. All pronouns may be placed in one of these three groups.	4. Write other sentences containing pronouns on the black-board, and ask pupils to say in which group each

CLASSIFICATION OF PRONOUNS—*Continued*

MATTER	METHOD
	pronoun should be placed, and why. Lead them to conclude that these three classes include all pronouns.
5. Pronouns which refer to the speaker are called pronouns of the first person; those which refer to the person spoken to are called pronouns of the second person; those which refer to the person or thing spoken about are called pronouns of the third person.	5. Tell the pupils the name of each class of pronouns. Write each name opposite the statement formerly written upon the black-board.
6. Pronouns may be classified and spoken of as pronouns of the first, second, or third person.	6. Write a few more sentences on the black-board, and ask pupils to refer each pronoun in them to its proper class.
7. Pronouns of the first and second person are called personal pronouns.	7. Tell the pupils that all pronouns which refer to the person speaking, or to the person spoken to, are called personal pronouns. Give an exercise on selecting personal pronouns.

BLACK-BOARD SUMMARY

Pronouns are words which represent persons or things without naming them.

Pronouns stand for:

(*a*) *the person speaking,*

(*b*) *the person spoken to,*

(*c*) *the person or thing spoken about.*

Pronouns are called:

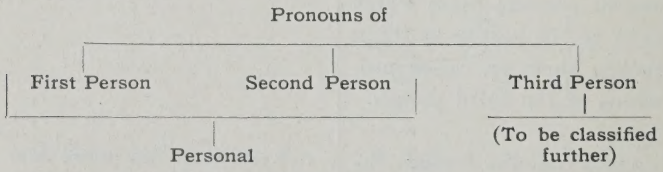
(*a*) *pronouns of the first person,*

(*b*) *pronouns of the second person,*

(*c*) *pronouns of the third person.*

All pronouns belong to one or another of these three classes.

Pronouns of the first and second person are called PERSONAL *pronouns. All other pronouns are pronouns of the third person.*



In the next lesson, the definition of personal pronouns may be formulated. The pupils have all the information necessary at the end of the first lesson, but they should not be urged to formulate the definition until the ideas involved in it have been made familiar by practice in classifying. The formulating of the definition is the eighth step, and the use of it in further classifying constitutes the ninth step. (See pages 17-23.)

In a subsequent lesson, the pronouns of the third person would be classified on the basis of whether they refer to a person or thing in a definite way, in an indefinite

way, or in a questioning way. The following sentences are suitable for the lesson:

This is a well-made box.
Who is a good musician?
He made it with his tools.
Anybody could make it as well.
What did he do it with?
That is my writing.
They do not say anything.
Which will you have?
Something must be done.

BLACK-BOARD SUMMARY

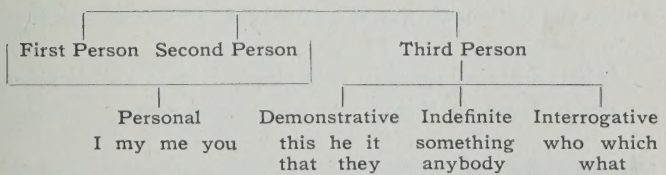
(After teaching classification of pronouns)

Pronouns of the third person refer to persons or things in various ways.

The pronouns this, he, it, that, *refer to persons or things in such a way that we know clearly who or what is spoken about*—DEMONSTRATIVE *pronouns.*

The pronouns anybody, something, anything, *refer to persons or things in an indefinite way*—INDEFINITE *pronouns.*

The pronouns who, what, which, *refer to persons or things in a questioning way*—INTERROGATIVE *pronouns.*



NOTE.—Conjunctive pronouns, being only partly pronominal and taking their person from the antecedents, do not in themselves mark person, and therefore do not appear in this summary.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

ACCORDING TO MEANING

Aim: To make clear the relation of the verb to the subject, the object, and the completion.

1. Consider the verbs in a number of sentences from the standpoint of whether they express an attribute or not, grouping them accordingly:

Expressing an action attribute	*Not expressing an action attribute*
The man shot the bird.	The bird is dead.
The boy broke the stick.	The boys were ill.
The bird sang and flew away.	He became poor.
The man ran along the beach.	It seems all right.
The shock killed the captain.	Prices were never so high.
A black dog chased my cat.	He appears flushed.
All the men slept soundly.	
The girl blushed.	

2. In the case of the verbs expressing attributes, consider how the attribute is related to persons or things, in what way, and to how many. Question the pupils on each sentence. What action is expressed? Who performs it? Toward whom or what is the action directed? This will divide the sentences into two groups, as indicated below.

Action directed toward some person or thing	*Action or state not directed toward any person or thing*
The man *shot* the bird.	The bird *sang* and *flew* away.
The boy *broke* the stick.	The man *ran* along the beach.
The shock *killed* the captain.	All the men *slept* soundly.
A black dog *chased* my cat.	The girl *blushed*.

3. Pupils should now be required to state in what respects all the verbs in the left-hand group are alike in relation to action:

(*a*) All express action.

(*b*) There is a doer of the action.

(*c*) Action is directed toward some person or thing (Object).

They should also state in what respects the verbs in the other group of sentences are alike:

(*a*) All express action or state.

(*b*) This action or state involves only the person or thing denoted by the subject.

(*c*) Action is not directed toward some person or thing (Object).

4. Write half-a-dozen new sentences on the blackboard and ask the pupils to place the verbs in one or other of the above groups.

5. Give the names TRANSITIVE and INTRANSITIVE to the proper groups.

6. Classify verbs in Exercise 29, page 186, *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* as transitive, intransitive, or as verbs not expressing an attribute of the person or the thing denoted by the subject.

7. Formulate definitions for transitive and intransitive verbs. (See page 185, *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar.*)

8. Give more difficult examples for classification, such as:

He gave me a book.	He paints very well.
He looks well.	He paints houses well.

BLACK-BOARD SUMMARY

Expressing Action

Action exerted upon some person or thing

Transitive

Expressing Action

Action not exerted upon any person or thing

Intransitive

9. The verbs *is, were, became, seems, appears,* should be further discussed, in order to develop their function of joining a modifying or attribute word to the subject. The name, COPULA verbs, should be given to these, and a definition reached by a process similar to that followed in securing definitions of the transitive and intransitive verbs.

The final black-board summary would show:

VERBS

Expressing Action or State — Transitive, Intransitive

Not expressing Action or State and requiring Completion — Copula

CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

ACCORDING TO FORM

(Usually called Comparison)

Aim: To teach the correct use of different forms of adjectives.

NOTE.—This lesson will follow a series of lessons on the adjective and on the classification of adjectives according to meaning.

After reviewing the adjective and the different classes of adjectives according to meaning, pupils should be

asked to give the forms of adjectives with which they are familiar; for example, old, older, oldest; rich, richer, richest. By referring to their former classification, they will discover that, with few exceptions, the qualifying adjectives are those which have the forms ending in *-er* and *-est.*

1. Place two small books on the table. Ask pupils for an adjective descriptive of the size of either book (small). Write on the black-board the sentence: "There are two small books upon the table". Point to the larger and ask pupils to indicate its size in relation to the other (both being small).

So we say:

James is taller than Robert (both being short);
Mary is one year older than Annie (both being young);
His voice is louder than mine (both being low).

From such examples as these lead the pupils to make the general statement: The form in *er* does not necessarily indicate that the object described by it actually possesses the quality indicated by the simple form of the adjective. The object may, in fact, have the opposite quality. The comparative form, therefore, merely indicates that the object comes nearer the possession of the quality than does something else with which it is compared.

2. Compare the same objects, however, from the opposite point of view; that is, the smaller of the two books may be compared with the larger, as follows:

This book is small;
That book is smaller than this book (both being small).
Robert is shorter than James (both being short).
Annie is one year younger than Mary (both being young).

From this point of view the pupils might conclude that the form in *er* implies the actual possession of the quality indicated by the simple form. Develop that it still remains true that the form in *er* does not indicate the actual possession of any quality, but only more of *some* quality in relation to something else with which it is compared.

3. Present on the board such sentences as:

John is a young man.
James is a younger man than John.
John is an older man than James.

Develop, by having the pupils notice that the second sentence will not express the actual possession of any quality unless taken with the first sentence. It is therefore from what is said in the first sentence that we know in this case that the object described by the form in *er* actually has the quality indicated by the simple form and in greater degree.

Question as follows:

What kind of man is John? (Young)
What kind of man is James? (Young)

How do you know? (John is young, James is younger —that is, is not as old as John, who is young; therefore, James must be young.)

In the third sentence what kind of man is John? (Young) How do you know? (The first sentence tells me so.) What kind of a man is James? (Young, also) What word is used in describing this young man, John? (Older) Why do we use the word "Older" in describing a young man? (Because we want to describe him in relation to some one else and, by comparison with that person, he is older.)

From all the examples used, the pupils should come to the conclusion that the form in *er* is used in comparing one object with one other.

The meaning of the form in *est* and its use in comparing one object with two or more others should be developed in a manner similar to the above.

After this has been taught, an exercise should be given to test the knowledge of the class regarding the correct use of each form, as follows: Add *er* or *est* to the unfinished adjectives in the following sentences:

John is old— than James.
James is the old— of all the boys.
Which is the strong—, iron or wood?
Which is the strong—, iron, wood, or copper?
Of the two, this is the long—.
Of the four boys, he is the old—.
My birds are black— than yours.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS

Aim: To make clear the function of the different conjunctions and to assist pupils to understand the value of the clauses in sentences.

MATTER	METHOD
1. Certain conjunctions relate clauses to some word in the principal clause in a way similar to that in which a preposition relates the noun in a phrase to some other word in the sentence.	1. Write the following sentences on the blackboard: (*a*) The men came for the horse. (*b*) The men came because they were sent. (*c*) They play in the shed because the weather is cold. Question pupils on the function of the phrase *for the horse*, and on that of the preposition *for*. Compare the function of *because* in sentence (*b*) with that of *for* in sentence (*a*). The class will see that *because they were sent* has the same function in sentence (*b*) as *for the horse* has in sentence (*a*), and that *because* relates the clause to *came* in a way similar to that in which *for* relates the phrase to *came*. Lead them to

CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS—*Continued*

MATTER	METHOD
	see, however, that, while a noun follows the preposition, a subject and predicate follow *because*. Use Exercises, page 67, *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar* and other sentences to find other words similar to *because;* for example—*when, if, that, although.*
2. Conjunctions such as *because, when, if, that, although,* join and relate subordinate clauses to some word or phrase in another clause.	2. Compare the function of the conjunctions *because, when, if, that, although,* as used in the sentences on page 67, and lead the class to make the generalization that all these conjunctions join and relate subordinate clauses to some word or phrase in another clause.
3. Certain conjunctions join clauses, phrases, or words to one another, but do not show any grammatical relation between them. NOTE.—*Caution the pupils against believing that one clause depends on another in a grammatical sense, just because some word in it*	3. Write the following sentences on the black-board: John was there but I did not see him. James gave money and I gave my time. John or James will attend the High School. The ship rose and fell upon the waves.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS—*Continued*

MATTER	METHOD
can be understood only from the context.	The sun crosses the equator in March and in September. I told you that I did not go and did not intend to go. Ask the class to point out the conjunctions in these sentences and state what they join. Question the class on the value of each clause in the compound sentences, and lead the pupils to conclude that the second clause does not explain any word or phrase in the subject or the predicate of the first clause, nor does the first clause explain any word or phrase in the subject or predicate of the second clause—that is, each clause is of equal value. In the other sentences, lead pupils to see that the conjunction joins words of equal value (*John* or *James; rose* and *fell*), phrases of equal value (*in March* and *in September*), or subordinate clauses of equal value

CLASSIFICATION OF CONJUNCTIONS—*Continued*

MATTER	METHOD
	(*that I did not go* and *did not intend to go*).
4. There are two classes of conjunctions: (*a*) Those which join subordinate clauses to some word or phrase in another clause; (*b*) Those which join clauses, words, or phrases of equal value in a sentence.	4. Examine the function of each conjunction in paragraph 2 and in paragraph 3, and lead pupils to discover that all in paragraph 2 join a subordinate clause to some word or phrase in another clause; and that all the conjunctions, *but*, *and*, *or*, in paragraph 3, join clauses, phrases, or words of equal value. Write these conclusions on the black-board. Use Exercise 42, page 208, *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar*, for further examples.
5. Conjunctions are called (*a*) SUBORDINATIVE (*b*) CO-ORDINATIVE.	5. Give the names *subordinative* and *co-ordinative* to the two classes considered above. Classify all conjunctions in Exercise 42 under these two heads.

CHAPTER VII

INFLECTION

THE REMARKS already made regarding classification apply to inflection. The mistakes made by pupils in mood and tense of the verb seem to be due to two causes; first, a misunderstanding of the English language; second, a piecemeal method of presenting inflection. Possibly, in the first instance, there is not a clear understanding of the distinction between derived forms and inflected forms, as often these are not taught together as they should be. (See page 210, *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar.*)

CASE

(Fourth Form, Senior Grade)

Aim: To give the pupils a basis for self-criticism in using the various forms of nouns and pronouns.

STEPS IN THE LESSON

1. Review nouns and pronouns in sentences containing the various forms; for example:

We suspected the boy, for he had his gun when we saw him.
When a boy does wrong, people blame the boy, and also the boy's parents.
I dropped my books when the dog chased me.
I see either John or John's brother.
Thy people praise Thee, O God, for Thou judgest righteously.
Here is a man who is kind to every one, whose conduct is honourable, and whom everybody loves.

2. Question pupils on the person meant by *he, his, him,* in the first sentence; *boy, boy,* and *boy's,* in the second sentence; by *who, whose,* and *whom,* in the last sentence, bringing out the fact that each of the three forms refers to the same person. Give the lesson problem to the pupils by asking why we have three forms.

3. Question pupils in such a way as to secure the statements: *he* is the subject of *had; his* shows who owns the gun; *him* tells who was seen; that is, the action of seeing is directed toward the person denoted by *him* (object).

4. Ask the pupils to find in the sentences presented, other words used as subjects of verbs; others indicating ownership; and others used as objects. In the end, we should have all the nouns and pronouns in three groups; thus:

1. He, we, boy, people, I, dog, thou, who;
2. His, boy's, my, neighbour's, John's;
3. Boy, him, parents, me, John, brother, Thee, whom.

The words *God* in the fifth sentence and *man* in the sixth sentence will cause some difficulty and may be left for the time being, with the promise that they will be dealt with in a future lesson.

5. Question again as follows:

What part of its sentence is formed by each word in the first group, section 4? (Subject)

What relation is indicated by the form of word used in the second group? (Possession)

What part of its sentence is formed by each word in the last group? (Object)

Write on the black-board summaries made by pupils:

Certain forms of some pronouns are used as subjects of sentences.

Certain forms of some nouns and of a few pronouns are used to indicate a function and a relation of possession.

Certain forms of some pronouns are used as objects of verbs.

Tell the pupils that these different forms of nouns and pronouns in a sentence are called CASE forms. Call their attention to the fact that there are three different functions and relations—subject, possession, and object.

6. Use Exercise 47, page 218, to test the pupils' ability to recognize these three functions and relations.

7. Obtain from the pupils the following statements:

Nouns and pronouns are used in sentences in three ways—as subjects, as objects, and to express a relation of possession.

A few pronouns have three different forms to denote these three functions and relations.

Nouns have only two forms to denote these three functions and relations, subject and object being the same form.

These three functions and relations are spoken of as CASES.

Cases, therefore, are functions which nouns and pronouns bear in relation to certain other words in the sentence.

8. Develop the fact that with all nouns and most pronouns the subjective function and relation and the objective function and relation are usually shown by the position of the nouns and the pronouns in the sentence.

9. Give the names, NOMINATIVE, POSSESSIVE, and OBJECTIVE to denote the three different case functions and relations. Lead the pupils to discover the proper position of the sign of the possessive nouns.

10. Formulate definitions (see page 217) and apply to further examples.

MOOD.

In teaching a lesson on mood, the teacher will begin with the definition of the verb (see page 40, *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar*) and from this proceed to discuss the various ways of presenting the assertion made by means of the verb. If any difficulty arises through speaking of the verb in an imperative sentence as making an assertion, the alternative definition of a verb as expressing an action or state may be used.

The teacher may present the lesson problem by having typical sentences containing verbs of different moods written on the black-board and the assertions made by the verbs discussed, as:

John saves his money.
If John save his money, he will be rich.
Save your money.
God save the King!
He was here.
O that he were here!
The Lord is with us.
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet.

In the sentence, "John saves his money", the pupils will be asked how the speaker presents his assertion. Some such answer as: "The speaker presents the assertion made by *saves* in this sentence as actually true" should be developed. The teacher may then require his pupils to find other assertions of a similar nature in a list of sentences containing examples of the different moods. In this list such a sentence as: "If John save his money, he will be rich" will not be selected by the pupils as one in which the assertion expressed by *save* is presented as actually true. They should be asked to express in their own words how the speaker does present the assertion in such a sentence. Some may say: "The speaker thinks of John's sav-

ing his money as possible" or "The speaker presents the thing asserted as merely thought of and not actually true". Other examples should be found by the pupils in the list of sentences on the black-board, which will contain such forms among others as, "O that he were here to-day", "God save the King"; the way in which the assertion is presented by the speaker will be contrasted with the first set of examples.

It will be wise to call the pupils' attention to instances of deliberate falsehood or wrong opinion such as, "Canada is a part of the United States", in order to impress the fact that it is not the actual truth or falsehood of the assertion that determines the mood, but the way the speaker is represented as presenting the assertion. In "I doubt his word", there is a clear assertion of my doubting his word; in "Canada is part of the United States", the speaker presents his statement as true.

Next, such sentences as: "Save your money now", "Close the door", already known as imperative sentences, should be considered from the new standpoint of the speaker's view of the use of the verb. All will recognize that the verb is used in expressing a command or, in certain cases, an entreaty.

The various sentences have now been grouped according to their likenesses in the one particular—the speaker's mode of presenting the assertion. By referring to the different groups, in answer to the question, "How does the speaker present the assertion in each group of sentences?" the following statements should be secured:

In all the sentences in the first group, the speaker presents the assertion as really true.

In all the sentences in the second group, the speaker presents the assertion as made about something thought of, but not actually true.

In all the sentences in the third group, the speaker presents the assertion as a command or entreaty.

Attention should now be drawn to the forms of the verb which express the three different ways in which the speaker presents the assertion. The pupils will see that the verb is changed in the sentences in the second group. They may then be told that this change in the form of the verb, made to express the way the speaker is represented as presenting his assertion, is called MOOD. It should be shown that the term *mood* has come to be applied also to verbs when there is no change of form to denote the various modes of presenting the idea, and the tendency is to use the same form in all three moods. Even if this were always true, it does not alter the fact that the speaker may present his assertions at one time as representing a fact, at another as representing a possibility, and at another a command. We can tell by the structure of the whole sentence, without considering the form of the verb at all, how the speaker is represented as presenting the assertion.

The names INDICATIVE, SUBJUNCTIVE, and IMPERATIVE should be given, and Exercise 55, page 236, used to test the pupils' ability to identify each mood.

BLACK-BOARD SUMMARY

A verb is a word by means of which we make an assertion.

This assertion may be presented in different ways:

1. *As representing an actual fact,* He saves money.
2. *As representing something merely thought of, not actual,* God save the King.
3. *As representing a command, etc.,* Save your money.

When the assertion is presented as representing an actual fact, we say that the verb is in the indicative mood.

When the assertion is presented as representing something merely thought of, not really a fact, we say that the verb is in the subjunctive mood.

When the assertion is presented as representing a command, request, or entreaty, we say that the verb is in the imperative mood.

The form of the verb is sometimes changed to express these different ways of presenting the assertion. This change is called MOOD.

PRINCIPAL AND AUXILIARY VERBS

Aim: To teach the recognition of principal and auxiliary verbs.

Preparation.—Review with the class the function of classification in grammar; also that the verb asserts something about the person or thing denoted by the subject.

Development.—1. From examples containing simple verbs, such as,

The little girl *told* the man;
The large boy *threw* the ball;
The dog *bit* the old man;

develop the fact that each such verb, like an adjective, describes the person or thing or states some attribute of the person or thing denoted by its subject. Develop by asking such questions as: Of whom are we speaking in the first sentence? What words in the sentence tell us something about the girl, or describe the girl? What does the word *little* let you know about the girl? What act did the little girl perform? What word shows this? The word *told.* How does the word *told* describe the girl?

Outline the results as follows:

The little girl *told* the man—*telling* girl.
The large boy *threw* the ball—*throwing* boy.
The dog bit the old man—*biting* dog.

2. Present with these, other examples containing auxiliary verbs, and examine in the same manner the second example in each group:

The little girl told the man.
The little girl was telling the man.

The large boy threw the ball.
The large boy has thrown the ball.

The old man hit the dog.
The old man is hitting the dog.

(*a*) Develop from the second example in each group that two verbal words are here used in describing the person denoted by the subject.

(*b*) Develop that it is only one of these words that actually describes the person spoken of. Underline this really important word with coloured chalk.

(*c*) Develop that the other word merely helps the important word to denote the quality.

Develop by asking such questions as: In the second sentence, what is the girl said to have been doing? What word shows you that she was a telling girl? What other verb is used with this word? Does the word *was* describe, or tell anything about, the girl? What would happen to the sentence if the word were omitted? What then is the use of the word *was* in the sentence?

Underline the helping verb with white chalk.

(*d*) Examine in like manner the second sentence in the other groups, and underline the verbs as in (*b*) and (*c*).

3. Developing exercise:

Have the pupils classify the verbal words in the following exercise as (*a*) helping verbs, and (*b*) verbs telling something about the person or thing denoted by the subject.

1. The tree has fallen down.
2. Mary has a good pen.
3. The boys returned yesterday.
4. She did send it.
5. John did his question.
6. The dogs were running to the house.
7. We shall see the race.

Tabulate the results as follows:

Verbs telling something	*Helping verbs*
fallen	has
has	
returned	
send	did
running	were
see	shall

4. Give the names PRINCIPAL verbs and AUXILIARY verbs, and have pupils describe each class in their own words.

5. Apply to further examples.

6. Show that the copula verb is also a principal verb. Develop this by comparing the copula verb with a principal verb of action, using such examples as:

The boy *gives* the book.
The man *is* honest.

The boy has *given* the book.
The man has *been* honest.

The boy will *give* the book.
The man will *be* honest.

7. Work general exercises including verbs (some of them copula) in simple and phrasal forms.

8. Develop definitions for the principal and auxiliary verb.

SUBJUNCTIVE VERB PHRASES

(See Text-book, pages 245-252, for the various kinds of verb phrases.)

Aim: To teach the different uses of "should" and "would", "may" and "might", and to improve the language of the pupils.

The teacher should give a review exercise on the mood and tense of simple verbs. (Exercises 55, 58, pp. 236, 241) The definition of subjunctive mood should be carefully reviewed and clearly understood. Some time should be spent studying the meaning of *should* and *would* in such sentences as, "I should go", in which *should* means *ought;* "His listless length at noontide would he stretch", in which *would* expresses that which is customary; "He would not take *no* for answer", in which *would* means *was determined;* "I said I should go; She said he would come"; in which *should* and *would* are the past of *shall* and *will* and express futurity from the standpoint of the past.

After these meanings have been clearly understood, the subjunctive verb phrases should be presented as a problem for consideration. The best way to do this is by comparison of the two forms of expression—the simple subjunctive and the subjunctive verb phrases.

O that he knew this.	O that he *might know* this.
Take heed lest you fall.	Take heed lest you *should fall.*
That were impossible.	That *would be* impossible.
If they succeed, it were well to write.	If they *should succeed,* it *would be* well to write.

The pupils should compare the pairs of sentences and discover the equivalent phrase for the simple subjunctive. Many sentences should be given for changing from one to the other.

In the following sentences, change the simple subjunctives to subjunctive verb phrases, and the phrases to simple subjunctives:

God preserve thee, Canada.
If it should be possible, I should like to go.
They spoke in low tones lest the prisoner might hear them.
They would like to see us if we should go.
Were it done when 'tis done, then 'twere well it were done quickly.
O that there were some virtue in my tears that might relieve you.

After the discussion on all these forms and their meanings, an exercise should be given containing examples of future verb phrases containing *should* and *would,* subjunctive verb phrases and other phrases illustrating other common uses of *should* and *would.* (Exercises on page 97, *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar*)

As a final test, verbs should be fully parsed, giving reasons for the mood in each case, for example:

He should have gone home earlier.

Should, principal verb, expressing obligation; indicative mood, since it states something as a fact; having for its subject, *He.*

Take heed lest you should fall.

Should fall, subjunctive verb phrase, since the assertion is viewed as representing something merely thought of; having for its subject, *you.*

PERFECT AND PROGRESSIVE VERB PHRASES

Aim: *To make clear the time and state of the action expressed by these verb phrases and to establish a basis for the correct usage of them.*

1. Review present, past, and future tense (pages 50 and 84).

2. Write sentences containing perfect and progressive verb phrases on the black-board and ask the class to tell what time is indicated by each phrase; for example:

The men *are working* to-day.	present time
The men *have worked* to-day.	present time
The man *was working* yesterday.	past time
The man *had worked* yesterday.	past time
The snow *is melting* now.	present time
The snow *will be melting* to-morrow.	future time
I *shall have finished* my work by ten o'clock to-morrow.	future time

Use Chapter XXXVII, page 245, *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* and give other sentences for further practice in telling the time of verb phrases.

3. Have pupils see that there is something more important than time expressed by these verb phrases; that, as a matter of fact, if we wished to express the *time* of the *action* only, we should use the simple present, past, or future tense forms. These verb phrases express the *state* of the action; that is, express whether the action is in progress or is completed at the time indicated:

4. Using the examples already on the black-board, ask the class to say whether the verb phrases express action in progress, or completed. Write opposite each sentence, *in progress,* or *completed,* thus:

The men are working to-day.	action in progress
The men have worked to-day.	action completed

For further examples in this step, supply other sentences containing the phrases in 5 below.

5. Write these typical verb phrases in a column on the black-board; in a second column write the time expressed; and in a third column write the state of the action expressed; thus:

Verb Phrase	*Time Expressed*	*State of Action*
are working	present	progressing
was working	past	progressing
will be melting	future	progressing
have worked	present	completed
had worked	past	completed
shall have finished	future	completed

6. Give the names PROGRESSIVE VERB PHRASES and PERFECT VERB PHRASES. Require pupils to state exactly what each kind of phrase expresses, thus:

Progressive verb phrases express the action as going on or in progress in either present, past, or future time.

Perfect verb phrases express the action as completed in either present, past, or future time.

7. Give the names, PRESENT PROGRESSIVE, PAST PROGRESSIVE, FUTURE PROGRESSIVE, PRESENT PERFECT, PAST PERFECT, FUTURE PERFECT.

8. Dictate suitable sentences to the pupils for further practice.

NOTE.—Explain to the pupils that in the simple present, past, and future tense forms of the verb the *state* of the action is not expressed at all, so that, when we wish to express the *time* of the action only, and do not wish to say whether the action is progressing or is completed, we use the simple tense forms.

CHAPTER VIII

ANALYSIS

It is one of the most important laws of teaching that, after principles, definitions, and rules have been developed in the class, a great number of varied exercises based upon these should be worked out by the pupils. This is absolutely necessary, in order that these principles, when once attained by rational processes, should not be allowed to pass out of the mind and be forgotten and lost. The mere development of principles will avail but little in the education of children. They must be called on again and again and again to apply these principles in practice, under a considerable variety of conditions, if the principles are to become a permanent and valuable possession.

In the study of English grammar this practice of principles is provided for in the exercises in analysis and parsing. It may be noticed here that the names ANALYSIS and PARSING are but terms for two slightly different aspects of the same process. The difference is one of degree rather than of kind. Analysis may be considered as a broader and more general kind of parsing, and parsing as a finer and more particular kind of analysis. Here, as often elsewhere in grammar, we find two terms shading off into each other in their significance, with no definite line of separation. In this Manual, however, our attention will be confined in turn to a consideration of each of these within the limitations usually implied by the term.

GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

The thought expressed in a sentence is composed of a number of simpler elements called idea-units which are brought into relation with each other through a mental act. A comparison of the ideas and relations comprising our various thoughts shows that they vary or differ in kind. When we examine a thought to discover the different ideas and relations of which it is composed, we are said to analyse the thought. The sentence, however, as the expression of a complete thought in words, presents in objective form these ideas and relations of which the thought is composed. Thus we are enabled in the sentence to obtain an objective, or formal, analysis based on and representing the logical analysis of the thought. This process, since it is a representation through words of the ideas and relations comprising the thought, is termed grammatical analysis.

A knowledge of grammatical analysis is valuable in relation to other departments of language study, and also in relation to other phases of grammar work. Since, in the grammatical analysis of sentences, the elements composing the sentence are distinguished on the basis of the ideas and relations of which the thought is composed, skill in analysis will imply the ability to recognize the parallel existing between distinctions of grammatical form and distinctions of meaning, and will serve as a guide to sentence structure in composition. It has been seen, moreover, that the grammatical study of words should be based upon the sentence, that is, upon the thought. *Grammatical analysis, therefore, which is but the objective analysis of the thought, should always precede and form a basis for the study of the parts of speech.*

CLASSES OF IDEAS AND RELATIONS

The idea-units comprising our thoughts may signify:

1. OBJECTS (persons, things, etc.), represented in the sentence by such words as, boy, Mary, he, desk, book, etc.

2. ATTRIBUTES (*a*) of quality, represented by such words as sweet, large, red, etc.
   (*b*) of action, represented by such words as, run, come, give, take, etc.

3. LIMITATIONS, represented by such words as, quickly, soon, this, every, etc.

In addition to being represented in the sentence by single words, these idea-units may be represented by groups of words. Compare for example, the representation of the attribute *honourable* in the following:

Honourable men
Men of *honour*
Men *who are honourable*

Moreover, the idea expressed by a group of words may itself be a complex of other ideas. For example, in

The water flows *over large stones*,

the limiting idea-unit denoted by *over large stones* contains both the object idea *stones*, and the quality idea *large*.

The relations existing between these idea-units also differ in kind as follows:

1. The *predicate* relation, in which an attribute or a limitation is asserted, that is, predicated of an object, as:

John came.
|____|

His wants *are few*.
|_____|

2. The *modifying* relation:

(*a*) Adjectival, in which an attribute or limit is assumed or implied but not asserted of a person or thing, as:

Good boys
These men

(*b*) Adverbial, in which a limitation is implied of an attribute, as:

He came *quickly.*
The apples are *very* good.

3. The *objective* relation, in which an object idea is related to an action idea in order to complete its meaning, as:

They threw *stones.*
He broke *it.*

While the idea units composing a thought are always expressed in the sentence by words or groups of words, the relations between these words may be denoted either by relating words, or by the mere position and agreement of the idea words. For example, in

The boy works,

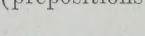
the predicate relation is indicated by the position and agreement of the two idea words; while in the sentence,

The boy is industrious,

the predicate relation is shown by the use of a special relating word, the copula *is.* In this latter case the predicate relation is usually treated as twofold—first, a predicate relation, existing between *boy* and *is;* and second, a completing relation, existing between *is* and *industrious.*

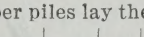
The modifying relations also, may be denoted either by position or by special relating words (prepositions and conjunctions) as:

1. Lumber piles lay there.
2. Piles *of* lumber lay *on* the ground.



Lumber piles lay there.

1. They marched thus.
2. They marched *as* he directed them.



They marched thus.

It is to be noted, further, that a word may sometimes serve in a sentence as both a relating and an idea word. For example, in the sentence,

The man *who* met us is blind.

the word *who* is both a relating word denoting an adjectival relation, and an idea word denoting a person.

In addition to being used to indicate ideas and grammatical relations, words and groups of words are sometimes found to indicate a connection between ideas or thoughts, but not a grammatical relation, as:

John *and* James left yesterday.
He called them, *but* they made no reply.

STAGES IN GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS

It will be evident from the above facts that grammatical analysis may develop from a very simple into a very complex process. The following stages of complexity in grammatical analysis may be noted:

1. Distinguishing the predicate relation only, as:

Birds / fly.
The heat of the summer / melts the snow.

2. Selecting from each of these parts the words which immediately stand in the predicate relation, as:

The heat of the summer / melts the snow.
heat / melts.

Pupils should have facility in analysis up to this stage before taking up the three principal parts of speech—noun, pronoun, and verb.

3. Having studied the verb and learned to distinguish between complete and incomplete verbs, the completing relations—object and subjective completion—may next be distinguished, as:

The boys / play games in the evening.
boys / play / games.

The little son of our friend / became sick on the train.
son / became / sick.

When the pupil shows facility in selecting the completing adjuncts, he will be in a position to distinguish a modifying from a completing adjunct and may now be taught to distinguish the two modifying relations. His knowledge of analysis will then enable him to distinguish the main divisions and relations in a sentence, as follows:

Some men carried in large tables.

Subject	men
Modifier of the Subject	Some
Verb	carried
Object	tables
Modifier of the Object	large
Modifier of the Predicate	in

The weather became much colder yesterday.

Subject	weather
Modifier of the Subject	The
Verb	became
Completion	colder
Modifier of the Completion	much
Modifier of the Predicate	yesterday

NOTE.—The distinguishing of the indirect object and the objective completion is to be left to a later date.

After the pupils have obtained facility in separating and distinguishing modifiers, they may be taught the modifying parts of speech, adjective and adverb; and the complex and the compound sentence. The mastery of these sentences will enable them to analyse sentences by clauses (see *Ontario Public School Composition and Grammar,* pages 168-171) and to distinguish the two groups of words —phrases and clauses—by which complex ideas are expressed. This will prepare the way for a further analysis of phrases and subordinate clauses into their component elements, and a consequent recognition of both idea and relational words. For example, in the sentence,

Men in heavy armour left the room as we entered,

in addition to denoting the ordinary units of the sentence as above, we may now further analyse the two complex ideas "in heavy armour", and "as we entered". We show that the phrase is composed of a relating word *in,* a modifying idea word *heavy,* and the object idea word *armour.* In like manner the subordinate clause "as we entered" could be shown to contain a relating word *as,* a subject idea word *we,* and a predicate idea word *entered.*

The chief value to be derived from a further analysis of the phrases and clauses which represent complex ideas in the sentence is that it will provide an excellent preparation for the detailed study of the relating and connecting words—prepositions and conjunctions. For analysis of this type, however, it is usually advisable, on account of the complex character of the work, to use some form of diagram or graphic representation which will disclose to the eye these various parts and sub-parts of which the sentence is composed. For this reason it will be well, from the beginning, to acquaint pupils with some suitable form

or forms of graphic analysis, in order that their power to represent sentences graphically may develop side by side with their power to analyse more complex thoughts.

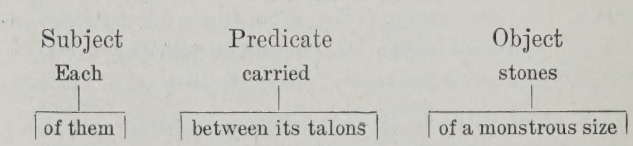
FORMS OF GRAPHIC ANALYSIS

As soon as the pupils have learned to distinguish the modifying elements of the simple sentence from the main elements, these may be represented graphically by placing the main elements—bare subject, bare predicate, and, when present, completing adjunct (object or completion), horizontally in their natural order, and the modifiers beneath these in regular order. For this purpose either of the following diagrams might be used:

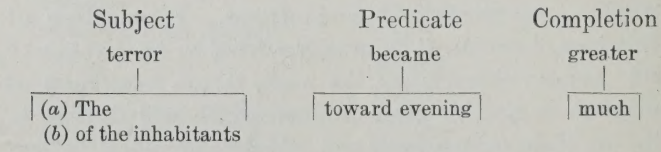
MODELS

Each of them carried between its talons stones of a monstrous size.

DIAGRAM I



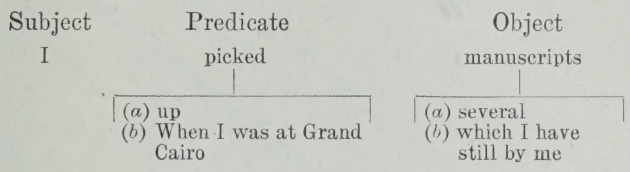
The terror of the inhabitants became much greater toward evening.



So also with the ordinary analysis of a complex sentence.

Diagram II

When I was at Grand Cairo, I picked up several manuscripts, which I have still by me.

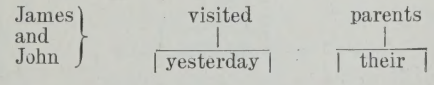


CONNECTING WORDS

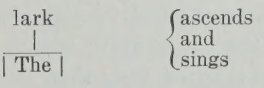
When dealing with sentences having compound members, the value of the connecting words may be indicated in the diagram by placing the one member over the other with the connecting word inserted in smaller letters between them. The following models will illustrate the treatment of various compound members:

Diagram III

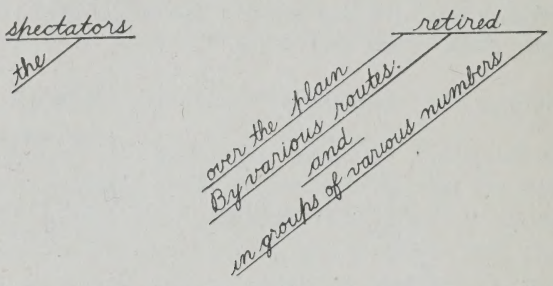
James and John visited their parents yesterday.



The lark ascends and sings.

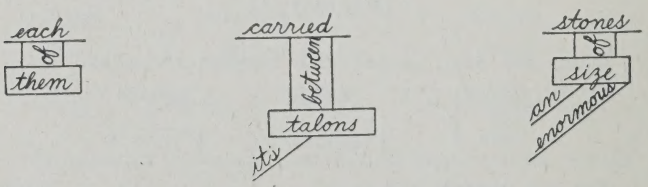


By various routes and in groups of various numbers the spectators retired over the plain.



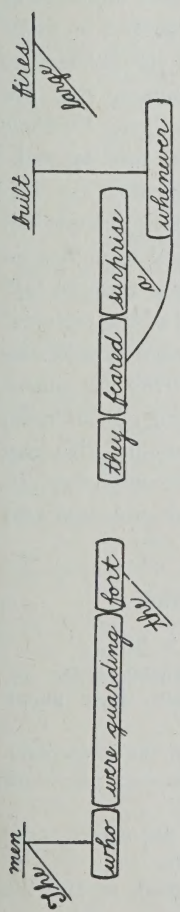
To analyse graphically the phrases or subordinate clauses of a sentence, so as to indicate in their proper relations the various ideas it contains and the function of the relating words, we vary the diagram by carrying the phrases and clauses horizontally below the modified words and placing the relating words perpendicularly between the connected parts.

Each of them carried between its talons stones of an enormous size.



Whenever the relating word also expresses an idea, as is the case with the conjunctive adverb and the conjunctive pronoun, the relation may then be denoted by a perpendicular line adjoining the modified and the relating word, the relating word itself being placed as an idea word in the subordinate clause. The following will illustrate this variation in the diagram:

The men who were guarding the fort built large fires whenever they feared a surprise.



VALUE AND LIMITATIONS OF GRAPHIC ANALYSIS

One of the dangers in connection with the oral teaching of analysis is the tendency to complicate the work at an early stage through the use of a large number of technical terms. As a departure from the ordinary type, graphic analysis, with its absence of an elaborate terminology, cannot fail to furnish an interesting variation in connection with this phase of the pupils' grammatical exercises. It will further enable the teacher to give interesting mechanical work which, in addition to providing thoughtful exercise for the pupils, will be very easily corrected and criticised with the class. The exercises also, by appealing to the eye, will give the pupils a distinct visual image of the various relations and ideas found in the sentence and indicate objectively the relative importance of each. Thus, by its pictorial effect in representing the sentence as a whole and the function of the modifying and relating parts of the sentence, it gives a more concrete basis for the study of words as parts of speech.

It is not advisable, however, that the pupil should depend too much on graphic representations of sentence

analysis. To apply his knowledge of sentence structure in literature and composition, he must rather acquire the power to grasp in the abstract the parts and relations of the sentence. Moreover, graphic analysis cannot be made so discriminative as oral analysis, since in the former the various classes of modifying phrases, clauses, etc., are largely represented by one and the same method. Further, the pupils may obtain a certain mechanical facility without any corresponding knowledge, unless they are frequently called upon to give reasons for their mechanical work. In this way graphic analysis may lead to mere rote work, in which the real aim of the exercise may be lost through an undue interest in the mechanics of the pictorial representation. Although, therefore, graphic representation or analysis is valuable as a step in securing the ability to grasp readily the structure and the meaning of sentences, this mode of analysis should, as soon as possible, give way to the less formal type of analysis mentioned below, in which only the more difficult grammatical problems met with in the exercise need be considered.

SENTENCES FOR GRAPHIC ANALYSIS

1. The old king called his three daughters to him.
2. The servant of the house shut the door behind them.
3. I gazed with inexpressible pleasure upon these happy islands.
4. The governor of the fort received them in the mess-room.
5. Amid a dead silence the bird uttered some very uncertain chirps.
6. The archers vindicated their opinion of his skill.
7. The Prince held his festival in the castle.
8. The little boy in the first seat placed a piece of drawing paper on each desk.
9. The young man who passed us on the street knows your friend.

10. The lady placed the chaplet which she held in her hand upon the helmet of the champion.
11. The same sun that had warmed his little heart at home came down on him here.
12. The hand in which he wrote the address was not very steady.
13. The plain through which the Red River flows is fertile beyond description.
14. The Christian soldier suddenly seized the mace which hung at his saddle-bow.
15. The great stone castles in which the Normans lived betokened an age of violence.
16. A stern smile curled the Prince's lip as he spoke.
17. The rich heiress that Bassanio wished to marry lived near Venice.
18. This portion of the company was complete when the Black Knight at length reached the castle.
19. The Prince rode off quickly till he reached the Strand, where obstacles to rapid progress commenced.
20. He patted the children on the head, and questioned beggars.
21. The old oaks around the castle seemed mighty and venerable.
22. A peaceful and quiet scene lay before the eyes of the traveller.
23. He was regular and assiduous in his attendance at his office.
24. My generous uncle, when he heard me on the stairs, called me to his bedside and shook hands with me.

CHAPTER IX

PARSING

To PARSE is to describe in grammatical terms the function, relation, and, when necessary, the form of words, phrases, and subordinate clauses as they enter into the construction of sentences. In so far as this description is given, whether with a few terms and in the simplest and most rudimentary fashion, or with many terms providing minute and full classification, just so far we have parsing.

Since an important end in the study of grammar is the acquisition of skill in the interpretation of thought as expressed in language, it follows that, while it is a part of parsing to describe the forms of words, phrases, and clauses, where these have a relation to their grammatical function, it is the function and relation of the word or phrase or clause that is of chief importance and must finally determine the parsing in its most useful values. For instance, in the sentence "John went to Toronto", the facts that *to Toronto* is a phrase and that it begins with a preposition are of trifling importance, except while a pupil is learning the meaning of the terms, phrase and preposition. What is of importance is that the phrase is an *adverb,* that it denotes *place,* and that it modifies *went.* These are of importance because they represent the thought and thought relations at the back of the sentence. Again, in the sentence "When he saw the policeman, he ran away", it would be poor parsing that would content itself with calling *When he saw the police-*

man an adverb clause of time modifying *ran.* It would be poor parsing because neither the form of the expression as a clause nor the idea of time is of importance in this case. What is important is the idea of causation, and it is important because that was the chief idea in the mind of the speaker or writer of the sentence, the element of time being largely incidental.

It is a somewhat curious fact that in our parsing we frequently begin our description of a word where our investigation of its qualities left off. Thus, in the sentence "I have a red apple", we say that *red* is an adjective modifying *apple,* whereas it would be more scientific, because in keeping with our thought processes in reaching our conclusions, to say that *red* modifies *apple,* and is therefore an adjective.

But while we may retain the old order of wording in our parsing, pupils must be trained to keep constantly before their minds, while trying to work out the parsing of a word, the fact that *relation* and *function* are the main things to be considered—often the sole things—and that, in difficult cases, they can frequently determine the function of a word by first finding its relation. Thus, in the sentence "John is tired of studying his lesson", if the pupil has been so trained that he will see the relation of *studying* on the one hand to *of,* and on the other hand to *lesson,* the thought that might have first come to his mind, that the word is a present participle, would be immediately dismissed, and he would quickly reach the correct conclusion.

There are, of necessity, as many stages of progress and attainment in a course of parsing as there are in the development of grammatical principles. Every step ahead that is made in developing should be immediately accom-

panied by the corresponding step in parsing, and it is to be understood of course, that at each stage the pupil will be required to give the parsing in full as far as he has gone. Then, when the pupil has made a considerable degree of progress, *the less important details may be dropped and his attention concentrated on the important matters.* Thus, in the sentence "The dog bit the boy", a pupil at the beginning of his work in parsing will call *boy* a noun, and that will be all he can do (page 21). After he has had more development work in the class, he will step by step come to be able to say that the word *boy* is a common noun (page 22), that it is a masculine gender noun (page 182), that it is of the singular number (page 211), and, finally, that it is in the objective case (page 216). Now, if the significance and use of the terms *proper* and *common, singular* and *plural, masculine* and *feminine* were properly taught in the first place and gradually impressed on the pupil as the lessons progressed, it would be well, after a few lessons requiring the complete parsing and use of all these terms, *to drop all of them but* case, *unless in exceptional instances, and to concentrate attention upon this as being altogether the most important grammatical function of the noun.* Thus much time would be saved for useful work, which would otherwise be frittered away in droning over or writing out mechanically matters of little importance. And there is nothing that kills interest in a subject more quickly and more thoroughly than to keep pupils grinding away at matters that they know already—"thrashing over old straw"—a significant rural expression which indicates the uselessness of the process.

Much time would be saved in written parsing if pupils were trained to use the standard abbreviations, where

there are any, instead of writing out all the terms in full. These are, in the main, as follows:

For the noun: Com., Prop., Masc., Fem., Sing., Plur., Nom., Obj., Poss.

For the pronoun: Pro., Pers., 1st, 2nd, 3rd, Dem., Interrog., Indef., Conj., and for number and gender as in the noun.

For the verb: Trans., Intrans., Act., Pass., Indic., Subj., Imper., Infin., Part., Pres., Fut., Perf., Imperf., Prog., and for number and person as in pronouns.

For the adjective: Adj., Attrib., Appos., Pred., Qual., Num., and others as in the pronoun.

For the adverb: Adv., and others as above.

For the preposition and conjunction: Prep., Conj.

As with the parsing of the noun, so with the parsing of the other parts of speech, the work should advance in stages corresponding exactly to the progress in the development of principles. It is preposterous to expect pupils to use correctly, in parsing, terms whose meaning has not been made clear to them. They may know the formal definition of a term, yet be quite ignorant of its meaning and application. In the correcting of wrong parsing, the teacher must not merely give the corrections in an arbitrary fashion, but must keep continually going back to first principles, so as to show the reason for the correction. Thus, it is a very common error, even among the best pupils of an elementary school, to err in the parsing of the predicate in the sentence "He is gone", and to call it a passive verb phrase. To correct this error the teacher should proceed somewhat as follows: What verb is *gone* derived from? What part of the verb is *gone?* Is the verb *go* transitive or intransitive? Why? (It does not denote an action that passes over from the doer to an object, and the subject *He* does not denote the receiver of an action.) The teacher now goes on to show that *is gone*

is not a verb phrase in the ordinary sense, but that *is* and *gone* are to be parsed separately, the latter as a perfect participle whose chief value is that of a predicate adjective having the meaning of absent or away, but retaining in addition some verbal force as referring to the action that preceded and brought about the condition described.

Since parsing means describing the function, relation, and form of words, phrases, and clauses, and since some of these grammatical elements are exceedingly irregular and peculiar in their features, it follows that it will not always be possible to parse a word properly according to the usual regular formula. Proper parsing then requires the writing of a little note explaining the peculiarities of the given expression. Thus, in the phrase "The Mayor of Galt's speech", it is obvious that the *'s* does not belong to the noun *Galt,* but to the noun phrase *Mayor of Galt,* and that the word *Galt,* without the *'s,* is the object of *of.* Again, if we speak of a large Baldwin apple, we do not mean that the apple is large absolutely, since Baldwin apples, as a variety, are classed as of medium size. Hence in parsing *large* here we would say that it modifies the noun phrase *Baldwin apple* and not simply the noun *apple.*

The method to be followed and the terms to be used in ordinary parsing have been sufficiently indicated in the text-book and the foregoing notes. It remains only to caution the teacher against making or overlooking some common blunders.

The notion is too prevalent among elementary school pupils and even among high school pupils that whatever answers the question "What?" after a verb is the direct object of the verb. And so, in such a sentence as "This is a fountain pen", we have the absurdity of parsing *pen* as the object of *is.* Nothing could better illustrate the evils

of a formal and mechanical system of parsing than the formulation and application of such a false principle as this. The question "What?" has no necessary reference whatever to the essential facts in the case—namely, that where there is a direct object, there must necessarily be a verb denoting an action that passes over from an agent to an object, and that, if the verb is in the active voice, the name of this object is the direct object of the verb.

Occasionally it may happen that a teacher goes to the other extreme and takes the position that an objective case is never found after the verb "to be". So he teaches that it is correct to say "I knew it to be he", not knowing by observation of the customs of the language or not having learned the rule based upon such observation, that in English the verb "to be" takes the same case after it as it has before it, and that as *it,* which is subject of the infinitive *to be,* is in the objective case in relation to *knew*, *to be* must be followed by the objective completion *him* and not by *he.*

A common mistake occurs in the parsing of the preposition in such constructions as "The city in which he lives is called London". Very many pupils parse *in* as showing the relation between *city* and *which.* This wrong parsing would probably be impossible to most pupils who had, in previous lessons, been carefully taught that such phrases as *in which* are a part of the adjective clause and directly connected with the verb of that clause. And yet there are pupils who seem never to have grasped the idea that the word preceding a preposition with which the preposition is connected, is the word which is modified by the phrase beginning with the preposition; and that therefore *in* shows the relation, not between *city* and *which* but between *lives* and *which.* The reasonableness of this

parsing may be further shown by changing the construction slightly without altering the meaning, thus: "The city is called London. He lives in it". Here *it* clearly takes the place of *which,* and *in* clearly shows the relation between *lives* and *it.*

It is easily possible, however, to make too much of changing construction and supplying words. Thus it would obviously be unnecessary and wrong in the above instance to say that *which* is a demonstrative pronoun because it means the same thing as *it,* and in the sentence "He went home", it is unnecessary and unscientific to supply "to his" in order to parse *home.* It might be well to say that *to his home* may be used and sometimes is used to express the idea, but that here *home* is equivalent to the phrase *to his home* and therefore may be parsed as an adverb. Again in the sentence "I thought him wise", it is obviously unnecessary to supply "to be" in order to parse *wise.* Finally, it may be laid down as a general rule that an ideal system of parsing will provide for the parsing of words as they stand in the sentence, without supplying words to which to relate them. Supplying should be resorted to only to explain how the construction came to be what it is, to explain the sense by giving an equivalent expression, or to fill in necessary ellipses in cases of actual abbreviation.

EXTENT OF WORK IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Although, in order to furnish opportunity for the pupil to apply deductively his grammatical knowledge as it is being acquired, exercises in both analysis and parsing should at all stages form a part of the work in grammar, nevertheless excessive detailed drill in analysis and parsing is to be avoided. Continual exercises in the division of

sentences and clauses into their logical parts in accordance with fixed diagrams, and the endless parsing of words throughout a complete scheme, necessarily leads to the constant verbal iteration of many well-known facts, with but few real difficulties to tax the intellectual power of the pupil. This tends to mere rote work, with a corresponding lack of intelligent interest in the exercises. The better course, therefore, with these exercises is, as has already been suggested, to discuss with the class in a less formal way, mainly those words, phrases, or clauses whose form and structure will present a sufficiently difficult problem to exercise deductively some phase of the general grammatical knowledge of the pupil, and thus establish a correlation between grammar and literary interpretation.

THE METHOD OF ANALYSIS AND PARSING AS A DEDUCTIVE EXERCISE

Notwithstanding what has been said against the excessive use of formal analysis and parsing in the public school, it is nevertheless evident, as mentioned above, that these exercises, especially when they consist of a somewhat free analysis of literary passages, furnish the essential means for the deductive application of a pupil's grammatical knowledge. The value of such exercises as a deductive process will depend largely, however, upon the method employed by the teacher. Frequently, in these exercises, the teacher is a mere hearer of the recitation, passing his questions from pupil to pupil until the correct answer is obtained. In this way, only the pupils who already have the ability to apply their knowledge take any real part in the work. The weaker pupils, through the teacher's passive attitude toward their errors and partial answers, soon learn to distrust their own knowledge of the

subject and lose all sense of personal power and independence. In conducting such a lesson, therefore, in grammatical analysis, the teacher should practically never leave a pupil without obtaining from him the desired answer. In other words, the method of such a lesson is always to be a developing one, in which the teacher, by drawing skilfully upon the old knowledge of the pupil, is to lead him to discover his mistakes and make his own corrections. The following means for conducting such a development may be especially noted:

1. *By simpler exemplification.* Frequently the pupil's error in such a deductive exercise may be caused, not through ignorance of the particular construction, but through his inability to grasp it in the complex form in which it may be presented. In such cases, by a comparative examination of a simpler example, the pupil will usually be able to read a parallel between the two and thus correct his error. For example, in the sentence,

This is better than *what you have*,

the pupil, in dealing with the sentence, may fail to see that the italicized part is a noun clause, or give it perhaps as in the objective relation after *than*. By comparing this with,

This is better than money,

he would no doubt be led to correct his error for himself and give correctly both the adverbial and the noun clause.

So also, if a pupil fails to recognize the grammatical value of the italicized clause in the first sentence of the following group, he would at once discover it for himself by comparing it with the second sentence:

The room was so still that *what she said* rang out to the corridor.

The room was so still that *her voice* rang out to the corridor.

Or again, if a pupil wishes to expand to a subordinate clause the italicized words in the following sentence, lead him to discover his mistake by comparing it with the second sentence, and noting the case of the pronoun *him*:

The rage of the king rushed up *like a whirlwind.*
You walk like *him.*

2. *By filling in ellipses.* In giving the value and relation of a sentence element, the pupil, through the omission of the part of the sentence to which this element is related, frequently misinterprets the relation of the particular element on account of its juxtaposition to some other part of the sentence. The filling in of the ellipsis by the pupil will usually, in such cases, enable him to correct his error. For example in the passage:

If I stay
I am not innocent, nor if I go,
Even should I fall, beyond redemption lost,

a pupil may give the last line as a single clause, taking the last three words as an adjunct of *fall.* To enable him to correct his error, have him fill in the ellipsis (am I) before *beyond.*

In the following sentence also, if the pupil gives the rest of the sentence after *know* as a noun clause, lead him to discover his error by supplying "in which" after the word *way.*

Do you know the way he did it?

This method might also be used in connection with simpler exemplification, as in the first example given in 1 above.

Notice also the need of filling in the ellipsis in the last line of the following:

It is the little rift within the lute
That by and by will make the music mute,
And ever widening slowly silence all.

3. *By changing the order.* This may also be accompanied with the filling in of ellipses.

In such a sentence as,

Hadst thou been here my brother had not died,

the conditional value of the first clause will be made more apparent by putting subject and predicate in the natural order and supplying the conditional sign "If".

Compare also:

Know from the bounteous heaven all riches flow,
And what man gives the gods by man bestow,

with the following:

Know (that) all riches flow from the bounteous heaven,
And (that) the gods bestow by man what man gives.

4. *By examining another interrelated construction.* For example in the sentence:

He has made the request that you should be on time,

if the pupil classifies the dependent clause as adjectival, we might ask him to classify the word *that.* When he finds that this word is not a pronoun but a pure conjunction, he may in this way be led to see that the clause is a noun clause in apposition with *request,* and not a regular adjective clause.

By accustoming himself to use these and other similar means to awaken the thought of his pupils, the skilful teacher will soon find analysis a most stimulating deductive exercise, in which all phases of the pupil's grammatical knowledge may be self-actively applied.

CHAPTER X

GENERAL EXERCISES

THE FOLLOWING exercises are intended to provide organizing reviews after the various topics have been developed in regular order throughout the course. Their chief purpose is to present in conjunction various phases of the same grammatical subject, which, on account of the spiral method of presentation, are necessarily treated in the text-book at different periods throughout the regular course. The introductory outlines at the head of each exercise are intended merely to recall the various topics exemplified throughout the exercise. They are, therefore, in no sense to be viewed as furnishing an adequate presentation of these topics; and under no circumstances should the teacher require the pupils to memorize these outlines.

THE SENTENCE

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

I. ACCORDING TO THEIR FORM:

1. The Assertive Sentence, as,
   The Captain received me with great kindness.
2. The Interrogative Sentence, as,
   Is your master at home?
3. The Imperative Sentence, as,
   Light the fire.

If an assertive, interrogative, or imperative sentence, in addition to expressing thought, also expresses strong emotion, it may be called an exclamatory sentence, as,

What an honest expression it has in its face!

II. According to Composition:

1. The Simple Sentence, as,

The men's faces glow with excitement.

2. The Complex Sentence, as,

My father had the greatness that belongs to integrity.

3. The Compound Sentence, as,

Bourne nodded assent, and the broker disappeared.

4. The Compound-Complex Sentence, as,

They knew the service which they had chosen, and they did not ask the wages for which they had not laboured.

Exercise

Classify fully the sentences in the following exercise:

1. Mr. Bourne, have you any castles in Spain?
2. The heavy brigade in advance is drawn up in two lines.
3. Show me the house in which they live.
4. Rebecca lost no time in causing the patient to be transported to their temporary dwelling.
5. Have you e'er heard of gallant like young Lochinvar?
6. The ostrich feeds on the tops of such plants as grow in the desert, and it can go a long time without water.
7. I should like to describe what followed, but I hardly know.
8. Open the door quickly, or I will beat it down and make entry for myself.
9. Thinkest thou that they will have mercy, who do not even understand the language in which it is asked?
10. How fading are the joys we dote upon!
11. What is it that has changed these beds of dead plants into hard, stony coal?

12. I went to the block-house where the ammunition was kept, and here I found the two soldiers, one hiding in a corner and the other with a lighted match in his hand.

SENTENCE ELEMENTS

1. Subject
2. Predicate
3. Object { Direct / Indirect }
4. Completion { Subjective / Objective }
5. Modifiers { of Subject / of Predicate / of Completion / of Object }

COMPOSITION OF SENTENCE ELEMENTS

1. Words 2. Clauses 3. Phrases

Exercise I

Classify the sentence elements in the following exercises:

1. The boy watches all these operations with the greatest interest.
2. The descent is dangerously steep.
3. Amid these careless warders glided the puny form of a little old Turk.
4. The king applied his lips to the wound.
5. In dry weather you find the streams feeble.
6. The pupils sent him some beautiful flowers.
7. The earth is nearly round.
8. I never saw the righteous forsaken.
9. The teachers of science are the parents of the mind.
10. A good conscience will make us brave.
11. Bring me a drink from the well.
12. Standing on a wagon one doubles the area of vision.
13. The tongue of his friend is full of wisdom.
14. Avarice makes us the sport of death.

Exercise II

Classify the sentence elements in the following, and state the composition of each:

1. The plain through which the Red River flows is fertile beyond description.
2. With their next glance they beheld an object that drew their attention from that mighty store.
3. The greatest invention that I know of has been that of the loadstone.
4. As soon as we arrived at the inn, the servant who waited upon me inquired of the chamberlain what company he had for the coach.
5. At a little distance it seems one vast plain through which the windings of the river are marked by a dark line of woods.
6. The traveller, a man of middle age, wrapped in a gray frieze coat, quickened his pace when he had reached the outskirts of the town.
7. On a pleasant summer's afternoon the children of the neighbourhood had assembled in the little forest-crowned amphitheatre.

CLASSES OF WORDS

I. The Parts of Speech:

1. Principal parts of speech { Noun, Pronoun, Verb
2. Modifying parts of speech { Adjective, Adverb
3. Connecting parts of speech { Preposition, Conjunction

II. Classes of Words with Double Functions:

1. The Infinitive { Gerund / Simple form with "to" / Simple form without "to" }
2. The Participles { Imperfect / Perfect }
3. The Conjunctive Pronoun
4. The Pronominal Adjective
5. The Adverbial Noun
6. The Conjunctive Adverb

III. Special Classes of Words:

1. The Interjection
2. The Expletive

Exercise I

Classify the words in the following:

1. They wheel about, open files right and left, and fly back faster than they came.
2. A man wearing a red coat rode by.
3. From beneath the black veil there rolled a cloud into the sunshine.
4. Alas for romance of chivalry!
5. The Roman general was the first who spoke.
6. Though the early romantic poetry is very beautiful, its testimony is of no weight, other than that of a boy's ideal.
7. Bowing from her palfrey, Rowena turned to depart.
8. A convoy from Bougainville was expected that very night.
9. A merchant who had taken me into his friendship invited me to go along with him.
10. Such the destiny of all on earth;
    So flourishes and fades majestic man.

11. Oh what is man, great Maker of mankind!
That Thou adorn'st him with so bright a mind,
Makest him a king, and even an angel's peer?

Exercise II

Classify the words in the following sentences which perform double functions, explaining the two functions in each case:

1. When a wind laden with moisture strikes against a mountain, it flows up its side.
2. Wherever the continents tending southward come to points, around which the commerce of nations must sweep, there is a British settlement.
3. The captain whom I hired to navigate my ship, knowing what they meant, said they were the male and female roc that belonged to the young one.
4. Lear, having escaped from his guardians, which the good earl had put over him, was found wandering about the fields near Dover and singing aloud to himself.
5. On hearing this, Ariadne ran out to fetch him home, taking some people with her to secure him.
6. The miller began to lose temper at hearing the laughter of his companions, who enjoyed his vexation.
7. He looked at me a few moments without seeming to see me.
8. The next day a dreadful storm arose, which continued with such violence, that the sailors, seeing no chance of saving the ship, crowded into the boat to save their own lives, leaving us alone in the ship.

Exercise III

Classify the infinitives and participles in the following sentences, as to form and function, and give the relation of each:

1. We have no time to listen to them.
2. A ship coming from China, crossed him on his way, loaded with silks.
3. The few they were able to muster were inadequate to defend the walls.
4. The faithful dog, seeing his master thus transported, began to jump upon him, to express his sympathy.
5. Mistaking him for his own slave, he ordered him to go and tell her to send the money.
6. He came to tell them the ship was ready to sail.
7. Upon hearing the sound of feet approaching, the watch instantly gave the alarm.
8. So saying, he walked through the wood, followed by the swineherd.
9. The yell pealed forth by him on recovering his feet, was in reality a signal intended for the guidance of the Indians outside.
10. It shall be my delight to tend his eyes,
    And view him sitting in his house ennobled
    With all these high exploits by him achieved.

Exercise IV

In the following sentences give the grammatical value of each word ending in "ing":

1. The crossing is very muddy.
2. The boy crossing the street took it.
3. Crossing in the dark was very dangerous.
4. I bought her a singing bird.
5. The bird singing in the cage is a canary.
6. This writing is very bad.
7. He is writing his essay.
8. He made the opening larger.
9. Opening the door, he ran out.
10. They escaped by opening the window.
11. The painting has been sold.
12. He made his living painting pictures.
13. The men came up shouting.

CLAUSES

1. Independent clauses, as,
   The trumpets rang out, and *the soldiers advanced.*

2. Principal clauses, as,
   I am not going unless they send.

NOTE.—An independent clause in a complex sentence is always termed a *principal clause.*

3. Subordinate clauses:
   (*a*) The Noun clause, as,
   I perceive *that you are impatient.*
   (*b*) The Adjective clause, as,
   These are the books *which they sent me.*
   (*c*) The Adverb clause, as,
   As they rushed toward the front the Russians opened on them.

EXERCISE

Classify the clauses in the following sentences:

1. When the preliminary prayer was over, the minister arose, and, having turned the hour-glass which stood by the great Bible, commenced his discourse.
2. I have a high opinion of these studies and think the study a very useful one because it teaches people what nobodies they are.
3. When all was in readiness, I descended from my chamber to take leave of the old clergyman and his family with whom I had been an inmate.
4. It is not presumptuous to express the belief that, when our knowledge is more complete, London will count her centuries of freedom from typhus and cholera, as she now gratefully reckons her two hundred years of ignorance of that plague which swooped down upon her twice in the first half of the seventeenth century.

5. I cannot but think that the foundations of all knowledge were laid when the reason of man first came face to face with nature; when the savage first learned that the fingers of one hand are fewer than those of both.
6. As they observed the various figures that made up the assemblage, they came to the conclusion that an odder society had never met.
7. As she gazed, an unmirthful smile spread over her features, like sunshine that grows melancholy in some desolate spot.

PHRASES

1. The Noun Phrase, as, They like *to be praised.*
2. The Pronoun Phrase, as, We praise *each other.*
3. The Verb Phrase, as, He *has seen* them.
4. The Adjective Phrase, as, A man *of honour.*
5. The Adverb Phrase, as, He went *to that place.*
6. The Preposition Phrase, as, He came *out of* the house.
7. The Conjunction Phrase, as, He sent *in order that* we might know,
8. The Interjection Phrase, as, *Ah me!* They are lost.

Exercise I

Classify the phrases and clauses in the following sentences:

1. The last beams of day were faintly streaming through the painted windows.
2. They threw their arms around each other.
3. David Swan had never worn a more tranquil aspect.
4. He wants to seem wise.
5. The marble figures of the monuments assumed strange shapes in the uncertain light.
6. As soon as they entered, he passed out of the room.
7. Ah me! how they suspect one another!

8. The king being tired with his journey, went early to bed.
9. These lords, when it was too late, did strive to outdo each other in mutual courtesies.
10. Oh me! what a rash deed have you done!
11. The death of Polonius gave the king a pretence for sending Hamlet out of the kingdom.
12. She was sought by divers suitors on account of her many virtuous qualities.
13. The short, close tunic and long mantle of the Saxons was a more graceful as well as a more convenient dress.

Exercise II

Substitute phrases for the italicized words in the following, and tell the kind of each:

1. They are *wealthy* men.
2. She walked *sorrowfully* from the room.
3. John did it *thoughtlessly*.
4. I waited *there* until noon.
5. The general was a *courageous* man.
6. *Canadian* winters are sometimes severe.
7. She left the room *hastily*.
8. He could not go *through* sickness.
9. The sun *sinks* behind the hills.
10. They sailed by the *moon's* light.
11. They passed slowly *from* the room.
12. Obey the *law's* commands.

Exercise III

Classify the phrases and clauses in the following sentences:

1. She springs to the stroke as she did at the start; and Miller's face, which had darkened for a few seconds, lightens up again.

2. As the boy led her by the hand, Dorothy almost imagined she saw the delightfulness of the home he was about to reach.
3. When we doubt whether we are young any more, then it is good to spend an hour or two with children.
4. Some of the pictures had been painted in colours so faint that the subjects could barely be conjectured.
5. While the party were looking at it, the flower continued to shrivel, till it became as dry as when the doctor had first thrown it into the vase.
6. When they were ordered to enter the hall, they thought that the soldiers were joking.
7. His feeble and uncultivated mind was incapable of perceiving that the riches of Calcutta, had they been even greater than he imagined, would not compensate him for what he must lose, if the European trade, of which Bengal was a chief seat, should be driven by his violence to some other quarter.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

THE NOUN

I. Classes of Nouns:

1. According to Application of Name { Proper / Common

Note.—A noun used to name a collection of objects is often classified as a collective noun.

2. According to Sex { Gender-nouns { Masculine / Feminine / Neuter-nouns

3. According to Structure { Word / Clause / Phrase

II. Inflection of Nouns:

1. Number { Singular / Plural }

2. Case — Possessive

III. Uses of the Cases:

1. Uses of the Nominative:

Subject Nominative, as, The *boy* left.
Predicate Nominative, as, George is *king.* He seemed to be a *king.*
Nominative in Apposition, as, Your friend, the *baker,* is here.
Nominative of Address, as, *John,* come here.
Nominative Absolute, as, The *day* being cold, we remained at home.

2. Uses of the Possessive Case:

(1) To modify a noun, as, *John's* book is on his *sister's* desk.
(2) Without a noun, as, *Mary's* is next to *Kate's.*
(3) Possessive in apposition, as, This is my cousin *John's* home.

3. Uses of the Objective Case:

(1) Direct object, as, He tore the *paper.*
(2) Indirect object, as, We paid the *man.*
(3) Object of preposition, as, She went to *town.*
(4) Object in apposition, as, I saw your friend, the *grocer.*
(5) Cognate object, as, She sang a *song.*

(6) Objective predicate noun, as, They made George *king*.

(7) Adverbial objective, as, He spoke an *hour*.

(8) Subject of infinitive, as, We believed *him* to be the man.

(9) Completion of infinitive, as, We believed him to be the *man*.

Exercise I

Classify the nouns in the following sentences:

1. The knight changed horse and spear.
2. The Jewess having retired, the attention of the populace was transferred to the Black Knight.
3. Cedric, the Saxon, was summoned to the court of Richard.
4. The lady was informed by her handmaid that a damsel desired admission.
5. The duke said these must be the two sons and their twin slaves.
6. A crowd of idle visitors, poets, painters, tradesmen, needy courtiers, and expectants, continually filled his lobbies.

Exercise II

Rewrite the following sentences, changing the gender of each gender-noun:

1. The youths sent their protector a present.
2. Pauline was now the daughter-in-law of her mistress, and a countess.
3. The abbess would not deliver up the unhappy man to his jealous wife.
4. The Sultan was inferior to his brother.
5. The prince was an ungrateful master, a rebellious son, and an unnatural brother.
6. He bought a ewe, a goose, and a drake.
7. The boy's aunt is a widow.
8. The friar saw a lad near the giant.

Exercise III

Give the plural forms of the following nouns:

ally	German	phenomenon
bandit	half	pony
banjo	hero	shelf
chasm	hoof	terminus
chorus	husbandman	tomato
cupful	man-servant	valley
echo	Mr.	vertebra
forget-me-not	Norman	volcano
	penny	yeoman

Exercise IV

Give two plural forms for each of the following:

bandit	die	Miss Smith
brother	fish	penny
cherub	index	seraph
cloth	memorandum	staff
cow		

Exercise V

A

Write the possessive forms, singular and plural, of such of the following nouns as are customarily used in the possessive form:

(The teacher should develop that many nouns are rarely or never used in the possessive form, a phrase with "of" being used instead.)

beau	foot	man-servant
child	German	mother-in-law
company	lady	tooth
dish	loaf	yeoman

B

Write the possessive form of each of the following:

The King of England, The Historical Society, Mary and Jane, The Mayor of Toronto, The secretary and treasurer, The Johnson Co., King George.

Exercise VI

Distinguish the various uses of the nominative case in the following sentences:

1. James, the postman, gave me a letter.
2. Mary, close the window.
3. George was crowned king.
4. There are giants in the land.
5. Jane, is that little boy your brother?
6. The stranger, whose name was Antoine, was a sea-captain.
7. The young man seemed to be the leader of the company.
8. The prince returned to Ashby, the whole crowd dispersing upon his retreat.
9. This is no fair chance, proud Prince, said the yeoman.

Exercise VII

Distinguish the uses of the objective case in the following sentences:

1. Give John this letter.
2. She shall die the death.
3. She taught the boys grammar.
4. He goes to make my brother prisoner.
5. Mary was taught sewing.
6. The war lasted ten years.
7. We met Mrs. Brown, the wife of the captain.
8. The letter arrived an hour too late.
9. They supposed this stranger to be the duke.
10. A guard renewed every four hours surrounded the fort.

Exercise VIII

Explain the case relation of each noun in the following sentences:

1. He was a messenger from the king, her father.
2. When Duncan the Meek reigned king of Scotland, there lived a great thane or lord, called Macbeth.
3. The knight's matters must be settled before the squire's.
4. Were I ever to become monarch of England, I would hang such transgressors.
5. Sometimes a member of the family had to set out for a supply of fire from a neighbour's.
6. Round earth's wild coasts our batteries speak, our highway is the main.
7. The king's sons having vacated the throne, Macbeth was crowned king.
8. The bowman, his figure stooped, and his knees planted firmly against the sides, stands, with paddle poised in both hands, screaming to the crew.
9. The money is the good knight, my master's.
10. All things I heard or saw,
    Me, their master, waited for.

Exercise IX

Point out the noun phrases and the noun clauses in the following sentences, and give the relation of each:

1. What his own opinion was is not known.
2. Being engaged will keep him steady.
3. Can it be done without his being offended?
4. She was greatly interested in whatever he said.
5. He holds the theory that all life is an affair of the will.
6. Do you think he would like to be invited?
7. They asked me whether I would accompany them.
8. These are better than what you have.
9. We came to the conclusion that his sadness was occasioned by his having to part from his friends.

10. When you think what he has done for you, you ought to give it without his asking for it.
11. He expressed a regret that they had not come before.
12. What I want is difficult to procure; yet they say it can be obtained.
13. It was supposed that they would return the same evening.
14. He was told that a gentleman wished to speak with him.
15. That is what I have told you.

THE PRONOUN

I. Classes of Pronouns:

1. First Person
2. Second Person } Personal—these may be { Simple / Compound

3. Third Person { Demonstrative / Interrogative / Indefinite } { Simple / Compound

4. Partly Pronominal
   - (*a*) Conjunctive Pronouns { with antecedent / without antecedent
   - (*b*) Pronominal Adjectives

II. Inflection of Pronouns:

1. Gender { Masculine / Feminine / Neuter

Only in the singular of the demonstrative pronouns "he", "she", "it". (Old English, *he, heo, hit*)

2. Number { Singular / Plural — (*This* and *that* are the only pronouns that have true inflections for number.)

3. Case. { Nominative / Possessive / Objective } (Only a few pronouns are inflected for case.)

III. Uses of the Cases:

In addition to most of the uses given under the noun, a pronoun may also be used as a reflexive object, as, "The men hurt *themselves*".

Exercise I

Point out the personal and the demonstrative pronouns in the following sentences, and give, where possible, the gender of the demonstrative pronouns:

1. The boy strove to raise himself.
2. James will take any that you have.
3. How foolish that would sound!
4. He was told they were weary with travelling.
5. I saw him with my own eyes.
6. What is your wish, sir, that you send for me?
7. That should not hinder them.
8. From these she learned whither they had gone.
9. If it were he, I am sure he would have spoken to us.
10. She sent it to the king himself.

Exercise II

Point out the interrogative, the conjunctive, and the indefinite pronouns in the following sentences. Tell whether the conjunctive pronouns are used with or without an antecedent:

1. What were you thinking of?
2. James will take any that you have.
3. The general, who had taken her under his protection, was the first who spoke to the king.
4. Who gave him the other?
5. They sent away some whose loyalty was suspected.
6. Nothing will animate their courage.
7. Who would refuse what I have asked for?
8. Some of them imitated the example of the prince.

9. The valley through which they travelled was traversed by a brook whose banks were swampy.

Exercise III

Classify all the pronouns in the following sentences, and state the number and case of each:

1. There is something striking in this.
2. What was I to do?
3. All of them which have undergone this have been rendered fit for service.
4. Some believe that this is true.
5. To whom must I present this?
6. The men who had stationed themselves to guard it withdrew and suffered her to pass.
7. This is what I most admire in him.
8. What are you reading there?
9. Whoever shall call thee Saxon will do thee honour.
10. This is as good as any of the others.
11. I shall repeat nothing of what you have said.

THE VERB

I. Classes of Verbs

1. According to Meaning { Copula, Transitive, Intransitive
2. According to Conjugation { Old, New
3. According to Structure { Word, Phrase
4. According to Asserting Power { Principal, Auxiliary

II. Inflection of Verbs

1. Mood { Indicative / Subjunctive (sometimes phrasal) / Imperative }
2. Tense { Present / Past / Future }
3. Person { First / Second / Third } (Frequently no inflection)
4. Number { Singular / Plural } (Frequently no inflection)

III. Classes of Verb Phrases

Future Tense phrases
Subjunctive Mood phrases
Perfect
Progressive
Emphatic
Passive

Exercise I

Classify according to meaning the verbs in the following sentences:

1. The men overtook them at the gate.
2. He led her to the door.
3. They separated at the door.
4. I am here again.
5. Ill news flies fast.
6. The boy flew his kite.

7. The world is too large.
8. Are you all here?
9. Exchange books with John.
10. She was a clever woman.

Exercise II

Classify according to meaning the verbs in the following sentences, and tell to which conjugation each belongs:

1. They seemed happier than before.
2. The pearl shone like a star.
3. The peasant set up a pole.
4. The gnats play in the warm sun.
5. They bound it with cords.
6. Seek the beautiful fairy.
7. The light appears closer.
8. She took off her cap and threw it down.
9. Stay yet a moment, leave me not now!
10. See how they avail themselves of every cover which a tree or bush affords, and shun exposing themselves.

Exercise III

Give the principal parts of the following verbs, and tell to which conjugation each belongs:

bear	feel	hurt	shrink
behold	find	know	sink
bind	fling	lay	sleep
blow	forsake	lie	steal
buy	go	lose	tear
catch	grow	meet	throw
drink	hear	rise	wear
drive	hold	sell	weep
duck	hound	shoot	wind

Exercise IV

Classify the verb phrases in the following sentences, and distinguish between the auxiliary and the principal verbs:

1. They were keeping their court in great pomp.
2. He was found by his faithful servant.
3. Why hath he shown himself here?
4. Be ready in case he should return.
5. Now we shall drive into the country.
6. "I do not believe it", he replied.
7. They are led by a noble knight.
8. She said they would soon return.
9. Don't cry; you shall go to-morrow.
10. He was interrupted by his physician.
11. He had been awakened by the noise.
12. She began to hope that her daughter would recover.
13. It is being repaired to-day.
14. He asked how soon it would be done.

Exercise V

Classify fully the phrasal infinitives and the phrasal participles in the following sentences:

1. They were in danger of being turned back.
2. Having finished his task, he looked up.
3. They deserve to be punished.
4. The fact of their having been there was against them.
5. She begged to be taken with them.
6. He insisted on having it done at once.
7. We ought to be going.
8. This good deed is a treasure to be returned a thousandfold.
9. Being well armed, they drove back their assailants.
10. Having been refused once, he never returned.
11. Do not talk for the sake of being heard.

Exercise VI

In the following exercise change the passive verb forms to active, and the active verb forms to passive:

1. The letter confirmed his suspicions.
2. Their horses were saddled in great haste.
3. Have you seen him to-day?
4. The next pupil gave the same answer.
5. His mother sent him to wash his hands.
6. I am bound by my vow to do so.
7. They are bringing the goods to land.
8. He will not be changed from his purpose by threats.
9. The men had been disturbed by the same sounds.
10. The cottage was surrounded by a considerable extent of cultivated ground.
11. The boys will know me in this coat.
12. His friends must have told him about the accident.
13. The boys do not hear the bell.
14. These foolish reports were more than half believed by the inhabitants.
15. His weariness determined him to sit down.
16. He had been awakened from his brief slumber by the noise of the battle.

Exercise VII

Explain the force of *shall, will, should,* and *would,* in the following sentences:

1. A few words will explain it.
2. They said his property would descend to his niece.
3. I will make a martyr of him if he loiters here.
4. If thou speakest false, thou shalt hang upon the next tree.
5. Were I as thou, I should find myself plenty.

6. I feared I should miss them in the crowd.
7. The countess said she should be her child.
8. Should he return, send me word.
9. A friend should bear his friend's infirmities.
10. Will you leave it until morning, or shall I take it now?
11. Your wife would give you little thanks, if she were present.
12. Most willingly shall it be done.
13. The men would not tell where it was.
14. It was the same to them as it would be to us.
15. The dream would not go quite out of his thoughts.

Exercise VIII

State the mood and the tense of each verb and verb phrase in the following sentences, and also state at the same time the person and the number of each when these two latter facts are shown by the inflection of the verb:

1. She is as dear to them as if she were their own child.
2. A knight was now seen to cross the court.
3. Heaven be praised!
4. I have climbed high, and my reward is small.
5. Bring me word how it has sped with thee.
6. I will lose my life ere a hair of his head be injured.
7. Were he ten times thy friend, I should oppose him.
8. Take care that thy time be not idly spent.
9. Make no friendship with an angry man lest thou learn his ways.
10. If no champion appears, it is not by thy means that this unlucky damsel shall die.
11. If he have the gift of showing me my road, I shall not grumble with him that he desired to make it pleasant.
12. Sweet be thy matin o'er moorland and lea!

THE ADJECTIVE

CLASSIFICATION

1. According to Meaning
   - Qualifying
   - Numeral
     - Cardinal
     - Ordinal
   - Pronominal
     - Possessive
     - Demonstrative
     - Interrogative
     - Indefinite
   - Articles
     - Definite
     - Indefinite

2. According to Grammatical Relation

Attributive, as,	This is a *sweet* apple.
Appositive, as,	This is an apple *sweet* to the taste.
Subjective Predicate, as,	The apple is *sweet.*
Objective Predicate, as,	He thought the apple *sweet.*

3. According to Modifying Force
   - Limiting
   - Descriptive

4. According to Structure
   - Word
   - Phrase
   - Clause

5. According to Comparison
   - Degrees of Comparison
     - Positive
     - Comparative
     - Superlative
   - Modes of Comparison
     - Regular
     - Phrasal
     - Irregular

Words partly Adjectival
- Participles
- Pronominal Adjectives
- Infinitives used adjectively

Exercise I

Classify according to meaning the adjectives in the following:

1. Little spiders spun it.
2. Several persons were visible.
3. Beautiful but shadowy images would sometimes be seen.
4. Every man was uneasy.
5. The fifth boy has two pencils.
6. Such a farmhouse stood out in the country.
7. Which girl owns the book?
8. Some people believe the man guilty.
9. New covers were put on each week.
10. The third person was an old soldier.
11. Every winter she wore a wrapper of yellow satin.
12. What queer animal is this?
13. Will future ages believe that such stupid people ever existed?
14. Deep prolonged notes, from a hundred masculine voices, arose to the vaulted roof.
15. For what reason did they send such large packages?
16. He thought he saw another dagger in the air.
17. What news from York, brave Earl?

Exercise II

Classify the italicized adjectives in the following sentences as limiting or descriptive:

1. His *aged* father met us.
2. An *old* man cannot live long.
3. A *soft* answer turneth away wrath.
4. A *pine* forest then covered these *beautiful* hills.
5. His *keen, piercing, dark* eyes told a history of difficulties subdued.
6. On the *right* shoulder was cut, in *white* cloth, a cross of a *peculiar* form.
7. He threatened to lay *fair* Athens in the dust.

Exercise III

Give the exact grammatical function and relation or relations of each adjective in the following sentences:

1. The day was very hot.
2. Large vines hung from the trees.
3. We considered the question impudent.
4. It became colder toward evening.
5. This is a fact worthy our consideration.
6. She pronounced it excellent.
7. This constant worry would drive me mad.
8. Is it wise to strive to make ourselves wealthy?
9. They found the enemy ready to receive them.
10. The vapour-charged air, being heated by the warm earth, becomes lighter, and rises.

Exercise IV

Give the degree of comparison of each adjective in the following sentences, and state the relation or relations of each:

1. This is more serious.
2. They are dear innocent children.
3. He wore an aspect of most profound gravity.
4. How easy it was!
5. She knew him to be ambitious.
6. The good servant made it clear that zealous duty to a dear master had brought him there.
7. They are not so trusty as they are valiant.
8. The foam breaks in long lines upon a broad expanse of darkness.
9. These were strange old times when fantastic dreams were realized.
10. "A hot and dusty day!" cry the poor pilgrims.
11. The youngest son, being a rich man, was well able to pay the ransom.
12. Few men are less selfish.
13. It was as wild there as in the deepest wood.

Exercise V

Give the other degrees of comparison of the following adjectives:

able	hardy	splendid
better	less	severe
blue	light	steady
common	lovely	uglier
difficult	most remarkable	uncommon
farthest	safer	witty

Exercise VI

Point out the adjective phrases and clauses in the following sentences:

1. Here is a shop to which the recollections of my boyhood give a peculiar magic.
2. His smile gave an assurance of faith and loyalty with which his host could not refrain from sympathizing.
3. The king of France and the duke of Burgundy were now called in to hear the determination of the king about his daughter.
4. The way by which Banquo was to pass to the palace was beset by murderers who killed him.
5. The ghost of Banquo, whom he had caused to be murdered, placed himself on the chair which Macbeth was to occupy.
6. This river, which has along its banks every diversity of hill and vale, is called by the wild tribes who dwell along its glorious shores the Saskatchewan.
7. There is not one in the town where he lives that he has not sued.
8. Rules are of less value than experiments.

Exercise VII

Point out any words or phrases in the following sentences which are partly adjectival in function, and state what other function they possess:

1. I have an errand to go.
2. Following the river backwards, we find it joined by tributaries.
3. None of my captains has any report to make.
4. The jack is a basket made of old pail-hoops, and fastened to an upright stick.
5. You have no reason to fear me.
6. Having delivered their message, he had no desire to remain longer.
7. John failed in his attempt to reach them.
8. Having often received an invitation from my friend to pass a month with him, I last week accompanied him thither.

THE ADVERB

CLASSIFICATION

1. According to Meaning
   - Time
   - Place
   - Manner
   - Degree or Comparison
   - Cause or Purpose
   - Potential

2. According to Structure
   - Word
   - Phrase
   - Clause

3. According to Comparison { Degrees of Comparison { Positive, Comparative, Superlative } ; Modes of Comparison { Regular, Phrasal } }

Words partly Adverbial { Conjunctive Adverbs ; Infinitives used adverbially }

Uses of Adverbs. Adverbs may modify:

Verbs, as,	They advanced *rapidly*.
Adjectives, as,	That was a *very* good answer.
Adverbs, as,	He came *quite* willingly.
Prepositions, as,	It flew *right* over them.
Conjunctions, as,	He left *just* before you came.
Sentences, as,	They have *probably* arrived by this time.

However, *right* and *just* in the foregoing sentences might be regarded as modifying the adverbial phrase or clause that follows it.

Exercise I

Classify according to meaning the adverbs in the following sentences, and state what each modifies:

1. He immediately went up to them.
2. Do not remain there too long.
3. When did you see them last?
4. How slowly they move forward.
5. Why did you speak so unkindly?
6. Immediately behind them came the elephants.
7. He certainly acted foolishly.
8. He finished just as I entered.
9. I once knew it quite well.

Exercise II

Point out the words in the following sentences which are partly adverbial, and state what other grammatical function is performed by each:

1. He waited there several hours.
2. I have vainly striven to reach it.
3. He stole to the room where Duncan lay.
4. I fear to go forward, nevertheless we may not remain here.
5. I often see her when she comes into the garden.
6. They feared he would not be able to refuse.
7. Every day men came to join him in his exile.
8. Be ready to go when I return.
9. It is not difficult to see how all this will end.
10. He was resolved to prove this, therefore he questioned them further.
11. They came an hour before the rest.

Exercise III

Classify the adverbial phrases and clauses in the following sentences, and state what each modifies:

1. When he got home, a sad spectacle offered itself to his eyes.
2. He turned to the right that we might pass.
3. The Duke has never had a quiet moment since they joined him.
4. As he had now dry wings he flew a considerable distance.
5. While he slept, he dreamed a dream which made him resolve to go to Ephesus.
6. He had no sooner left the apartment than the prince summoned an attendant.
7. If you have the courage, we will mount so high that they can't catch us.
8. John remained where he was, but the rest ran out of the yard.

9. When he was of age, he communicated with his guardians as if nothing had happened in his life.
10. Though both were hardened villains, the sight of the captive maiden at first appeared to stagger them.
11. If there was no vapour in the air, the heat would rush back so rapidly that the ground would become frozen even on a summer's night.
12. When the cloud first forms, its quantity is far greater than the air is able to maintain in an invisible state.
13. As the wind passes through the clouds, it makes them very full of water; if it chills them, it makes the water-dust draw more closely together, or, if it brings a new load of water-dust, the air is fuller than it was before.
14. Though this is called by many a rash adventure, I deny that the undertaking upon which we are entering is in any sense a new one.

Exercise IV

Give the value and relation of all the adverbial elements in the following sentences:

1. Her views were rather peculiar, and therefore not always or even easily comprehended.
2. One morning he did not arrive quite in time for the train.
3. He was glad to meet the Baron one day when he dined with the Prince.
4. He married a lady with whom he lived very happily.
5. He was detained at London by his business six months.
6. Finding he would be obliged to stay some time longer, he sent for his wife.
7. When she was alone with the ladies, she was not so talkative as had been expected.
8. Several of the visitors, fortunately for the banker, whose time hung rather heavily on his hands, arrived an hour before dinner, that they might air themselves in the garden.

Exercise V

Compare the following adverbs, and state in each case the mode of comparison:

badly	far	more
better	fastest	seldom
brightly	ill	soon
sleepy	least	nearly

THE PREPOSITION

CLASSIFICATION

1. According to Structure - { Word / Phrase

2. According to use—To relate a { Word, as, He came from *Toronto.* / Phrase, as, He came from *under the table.* / Clause, as, He came from *where you said.*

Exercise I

Point out the prepositions and preposition phrases in the following sentences. Classify the object of the preposition, and tell in each case to what it is related.

1. He spoke to his father about it.
2. They are soft to the touch.
3. Early in the evening they crept up the ladder.
4. Two little leaves came up out of the pot.
5. We honour the men of old.
6. Have you been home since then?
7. I vouch for the truth of what they say.
8. Do you know for whom this is intended?
9. I did not stop on account of what he said.
10. They came from over the sea in large ships.

11. I was about to call him, when he came nearer to me.
12. They searched the town over without finding him.
13. Loud laughter proceeded from within the house.
14. They stood in front of the house.
15. The book you were asking for is gone.
16. Put it out of your mind.
17. He threw himself, without taking off his clothes, on a rude couch, and slept till after sunrise.

Exercise II

Supply suitable prepositions in the following blanks:

1. He gained some advantage —— them.
2. I am not accountable —— you —— what I have done.
3. This is very different —— the other.
4. He did not seem —— ease —— their presence.
5. Did you sympathize —— them —— their loss?
6. He bought it —— the gallon and put it up —— bottles.
7. He was accompanied —— his friend.
8. Bear —— me while I communicate the message —— you.
9. They went —— train —— Toronto, and put up —— the King Edward.
10. When I laid the facts —— him, he complained —— your conduct.
11. On looking —— the matter they found that he could not look —— all the business.
12. To encroach —— the rights —— others is an offence —— the law.
13. He intrusted them —— the money, but he intrusted the spending of it —— me.
14. They prevailed —— the enemy, but the chief could not prevail —— them to continue the campaign.
15. He parted —— his friends, and soon afterwards parted —— his money.

THE CONJUNCTION

CLASSIFICATION

1. According to Use { Co-ordinative, connecting { Words / Phrases / Clauses ; Subordinative, relating subordinate Clauses }

2. According to Structure { Word / Phrase }

Words Partly Conjunctive { Conjunctive Pronouns / Conjunctive Adverbs }

Exercise I

Classify the conjunctions and conjunctive words and phrases in the following, and explain the use of each:

1. Either this man sinned or his parents.
2. I am old, and poor, and helpless.
3. I tell you that you will wrong yourselves if you take from him a penny under a thousand pounds.
4. These men approach with more discipline than could have been expected, however they came by it.
5. I swear to you, by all which I believe, and by all which we believe in common.
6. His horse, which was young and violent, reared and plunged in the course.
7. They came as soon as they were able, but it was then too late.
8. This encounter was the most equal, as well as the best performed which had graced the day.
9. Let him name the ransom at which he rates our liberty, and it shall be paid, provided it is suited to our means.

10. When night comes, the land loses its heat very quickly, because it has not stored it up, and the land air grows cold; but the sea, which has been hoarding the sun-waves down in its depths, now gives them up to the atmosphere above it, and the sea air becomes warm and rises.
11. The islands that lie so fresh and green before thee, and with which the whole face of the ocean appears spotted as far as thou canst see, are more in number than the sands on the seashore.

Exercise II

Classify the italicized words in the following as prepositions or conjunctions, giving reasons in each case:

1. He bought it *with* what I gave him.
2. He arrived a few minutes *before* the teacher, but left *before* the school was opened.
3. Have you seen him *since* dinner?
4. I have not seen him *since* you were here.
5. He did not remain *for* dinner; *for* he had promised to return early.
6. All of these proposals *but* the last are clear, *but* are they *as* practical *as* they are clear?
7. The vanquished, *of whom* very few remained, escaped into the neighbouring wood.
8. I shall stay here *until* noon, *but* he will remain *until* you return.
9. *When* I was eating that truffle, I felt a glow *about* my heart *that* must have been gratitude, *though* that is an article I had not believed in.

CHAPTER XI

EXTRACTS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING

NOTE.—Many of the more important constructions are indicated by italicized words.

When the king considered it from this point of view he could not see anything in it *to make* him *angry*, and began to frown fiercely on those who had made him believe *ill* of his favourite. He took the boy away with him, *repenting* deeply the *wrong* he had done him.

Her favourite amusement, as she sat there, was *to toss* a golden ball up into the air and *catch* it again. Once she threw it so high that, instead of *falling* into the hand that she stretched *out* for it, it dropped upon the ground and rolled *straight* into the water.

The good countess, who in silent grief had beheld her son's danger, and *had* even *dreaded* that the suspicion of his *having destroyed* his wife might possibly be true, *finding* her dear Helena whom she had loved with even a maternal affection, was still living, felt a delight she was hardly able *to support*.

A reckless young spendthrift who had only his cloak *left*, spied one *day* a swallow out of *season*. *Thinking* spring had come, he sold his cloak; but not long afterward a storm arose, and the poor swallow could not survive the *cold*. "Ah, my *friend*," said the heedless spendthrift, "you have ruined me, and are lost *yourself*."

He had never studied grammar, and he felt that he needed it before *going* on with his *reading*. *Hearing* of a man six *miles* away who had an English grammar, he walked to this man's house *to borrow* the book, and then trudged all the *way home* that same *evening*. He studied very hard, for he wanted *to talk* and write without *making* mistakes.

She used *to meet* the little boys and girls as they came from school, *borrow* their books, and sit down and read till they returned. By *this* means she soon got more *learning* than any of her playmates, and laid the *following* scheme for *instructing* those who were more *ignorant* than *herself*.

As the castle occupied, either with its principal buildings, *or* with its flanking and outward walls, every projecting point of rock which served as its site, it seemed as completely surrounded by water as the *nest* of a wild swan, *save* where a narrow causeway extended betwixt the islet and the shore. But the fortress was *larger* in appearance than in *reality;* and *of* the buildings which it actually contained many had become ruinous and uninhabitable.

They *had been waiting* some time when a door at the other end of the room opened, and a large well-built man, who looked so tall and *straight* that he reminded Cedric of a mountain pine, came forward. He was not dressed in armour, but Cedric knew at once that it was Sir Rollin Dubois. The knight talked a few *moments* with Cedric's father, and then, *turning* to Cedric, he said, "And you think you would like to become a *knight*, my *boy?*"

Sir Arthur and his daughter had set out to return *home* by the turnpike road; but, when they reached the head of the loaning, as it was called, or great lane, Miss Wardour proposed to her father that they *should take* another direction; and, as the weather was *fine*, *walk* home by the sands, which, *stretching* below a picturesque ridge of rocks, afforded at almost all times a pleasanter passage between Knockwinnock and Monkbarns than the *highroad*.

To this day the inhabitants of the valley point *out* the *place* where the three drops of holy dew were cast into the stream, and trace the course of the Golden River under the ground, until it emerges in the Treasure Valley. And at the top of the cataract of the Golden River are still to be seen two black *stones*, round which the waters howl mournfully every *day* at

sunset; and these stones *are* still *called*, by the people of the valley, the black *brothers*.

The king's son, who *was told* that a great princess, whom nobody knew, *was come*, ran out *to receive* her; he gave her his hand as she alighted from the coach, and led her into the hall among all the company. *There* was immediately a profound *silence*, they left off *dancing*, and the violins ceased to play, so *attentive* was every one to *contemplate* the singular beauties of this unknown newcomer.

The king was delighted at his willingness *to start* so soon, and provided him with what he needed. *It* was on a Monday morning that he started out *alone*, *thinking* always as he went how he *should persuade* Princess Goldilocks to marry the king. In his pocket he carried a writing tablet, and whenever a happy thought occurred to him he dismounted from his horse and sat down under the trees *to write* it, so that he might be *sure* not *to forget* anything which might be *of use* in his speech to the princess.

These painful circumstances increased upon him as he advanced; the ice crashed and yawned into fresh chasms at his feet, tottering spires nodded around him, and fell *thundering* across his path; and though he had repeatedly faced these dangers on the most terrific glaciers, *and* in the wildest weather, *it* was with a new and oppressive feeling of panic terror that he leaped the last chasm, and flung *himself*, exhausted and *shuddering*, on the firm turf of the mountain.

A soldier had served a king, his master, many years, till at last he was turned *off* without pay or reward. How he should get his living he did not know; *so* he set out and journeyed homeward all day, in a very downcast mood, until in the evening he came to the edge of a deep wood. The *road* leading that *way*, he pushed forward, but had not gone *far* before he saw a light *glimmering* through the trees, toward which he bent his weary steps; and soon came to a hut *where* no one lived *but* an old witch.

When Tom recovered his strength, his duty told him it was time *to return* to court; but *there* had been such a heavy *fall* of rain that he could not travel; *so* his mother opened the window, when the wind *was blowing* in the proper direction, and gave him a puff, which soon carried him to the king's palace. *There* Tom exerted himself *so* much at tilts and tournaments, for the diversion of the king, queen, and nobility, that he brought on a fit of sickness, and his life was despaired *of*.

Here again Hastings was pursued by the same fatality which had attended him *ever* since the day when he set foot on English ground. It seemed to be decreed that this man, so politic and so successful in the East, *should commit* nothing *but* blunders in Europe. Any judicious adviser *would have told* him that the best *thing* which he could do *would be* to make an eloquent, forcible, and affecting oration at the bar of the House; but that, if he could not trust himself to speak, and found it *necessary* to read, he ought *to be* as concise as *possible*.

"I am he *by whose counsels*, if Fame is to be believed at all, more than by the united valour of all the Grecians, Troy fell. I am that unhappy *man* whom the heavens and angry gods have conspired to keep an exile on the seas, *wandering* to seek my *home*, which still flies from me. The land which I am in quest of is Ithaca; in whose ports some ship belonging to your navigation-famed Phæacian state may *haply* at some time have found a refuge from tempests. If ever you have experienced such kindness, *requite* it now, by *granting* to me, who am the king of that land, a *passport* to that land."

Although *it* was only February, the world began *to move*, and some of the ministers' wives who were socially strong enough *to venture* on *such* a step, received their friends. Mr. Neuchatel particularly liked this form of society. "I cannot manage balls", he used *to say*, "but I like a ministerial reception. *There* is some chance of sensible conversation and *doing* a little business. I like *talking* with ambassadors after

dinner. Besides, in this country, you meet the leaders of the opposition, because, as they are not invited by the minister, *but* by his wife, *anybody* can come without *committing himself* ".

Waverley, though *confident* that Fergus MacIvor was incapable of such treachery, was by no means equally *sure* of the forbearance of his followers. He knew, that where the honour of the chief of his family was supposed to be touched, the happiest man *would be* he that could first avenge the stigma; and he had often heard them *quote* a proverb, " That the best revenge was the most *speedy* and most safe ". *Coupling* this with the hint of Evan, he judged *it* most *prudent* to set spurs to his horse and ride briskly back to the squadron. Ere he reached the end of the long avenue, *however*, a ball whistled past him, and the report of a pistol was heard.

Hastening forward, without ever pausing or *looking* behind, he by and by heard the sea *roaring* at a distance. At this sound, he increased his speed, and soon came to a beach, where the great surf-waves tumbled *themselves* upon the hard sand, in a long line of snowy foam. At one end of the beach, however, there was a pleasant spot, where some green shrubbery clambered *up* a cliff, *making* its rocky face look soft and *beautiful*. A carpet of verdant grass, largely intermixed with sweet-smelling clover, covered the narrow space between the bottom of the cliff and the sea. And what should Hercules espy there, but an old *man, fast asleep!*

What is remarkable in this vast movement in which *so* many millions were produced, and so many more *promised*, was, that the great leaders of the financial world took no part in it. The mighty loan-mongers on whose fiat the fate of kings and empires sometimes depended, seemed like men *who*, witnessing some eccentricity of nature, watch it with mixed feelings of curiosity and alarm. Even Lombard Street, which never was more wanted, was *inactive*, and *it* was only by the irresistible pressure of circumstances that a banking firm which had an extensive country connection was forced ulti-

mately to take the leading part that was required, and almost unconsciously lay the foundation of the vast fortunes which it has realized.

As I have already told you, it was quite a common *thing* with young persons, when tired of too much peace and rest, *to go* in search of the garden of the Hesperides. And once the adventure was undertaken by a hero who had enjoyed very little peace or rest since he came into the world. At the time of which I am going *to speak* he *was wandering* through the pleasant land of Italy, with a mighty club in his hand, and a bow and quiver *slung* across his shoulders. He was wrapt in the skin of the biggest and fiercest lion that *had* ever *been seen*, and which he himself had killed; and though on the whole, he was kind, and *generous*, and noble, *there* was a good deal of the lion's fierceness in his heart. As he went on his way, he continually inquired whether that *were* the right *road* to the famous garden. But none of the country people knew anything about the matter, and many looked as if they *would have laughed* at the question, if the stranger *had* not *carried so* very *big* a club.

According to their invariable *custom*, so pleasant a *one* when the fire blazes cheerfully, the *family were sitting* in the parlour, with no other light *than* that which came from the hearth. As the good clergyman's scanty stipend compelled him *to use* all sorts of economy, the foundation of his fires was always a large *heap* of tan, or ground bark, which would smoulder away, from morning till night, with a dull warmth and no *flame*. This *evening* the heap of tan was newly put *on*, and surmounted with three sticks of red oak, *full* of moisture, and a few *pieces* of dry pine that had not yet kindled. *There* was no light except the *little* that came sullenly from two half-burnt brands, without even *glimmering* on the andirons. But I knew the position of the old minister's arm-chair, and also where his wife sat, with her knitting-work, and how *to avoid* his two daughters, *one* a stout country lass, and the *other* a consumptive girl. *Groping* through the gloom, I found *my own* place *next* to *that* of the son, a learned *col-*

legian, who had come *home to keep* school in the village *during* the *winter* vacation.

When Hilda Covington was ten *years* old, she had, after a severe attack of scarlet fever, lost her *hearing*, and though her parents consulted the best specialists of the time, their remedies proved of no avail, and at last they could only express a hope, rather than an opinion, that in time, with added health and strength, nature might repair the damage. A *year* after her illness Mr. Covington heard of an aurist in Germany who had a European reputation, and he and Mrs. Covington took Hilda over to him. After *examining* her he said, "The mischief is serious, but not, I think, *irreparable*. It is a case requiring great care both as to dieting, exercise, and clothing. If it could be managed I *should like* to examine her ears once a fortnight, or once a month at the least. I have a house here where my patients live when *under treatment*, but I should not for a moment advise her *being placed* there. A child, *to keep* in good health, requires cheerful companions. If you *will call* again to-morrow I *will think* the matter over and let you know *what* I recommend".

When the dreary days of winter and the early damp days of spring *are passing* away, and the warm bright sunshine *has begun* to pour *down* upon the grassy paths of the wood, who does not love *to go* out and bring *home* posies of violets, and bluebells, and primroses? We wander from one plant to another, *picking* a flower here and a *bud* there, as they nestle among the green leaves, and we make our rooms *sweet* and gay with the tender and lovely blossoms. But did you ever stop *to think*, as you added flower after flower to your nosegay, how the plants which bear them *have been building* up their green leaves and their fragile buds *during* the last few weeks? If you had visited the same spot a *month before*, a few of last year's leaves, *withered* and dead, *would have been* all that you *would have found*. And now the whole wood is carpeted with delicate green leaves, with nodding bluebells, and pale yellow primroses, as if a fairy had touched the ground and covered it with fresh young life.

When this whimsical chap
Had a river *to pass*,
If he couldn't get over
He stayed *where* he was.
'Tis said he ne'er ventured
To quit the dry ground,
Yet so *great* was his luck
He never was drowned.

She gazed upon the inner court,
Which in the tower's tall shadow lay;
Where courser's clang, and stamp, and snort,
Had rung the livelong *yesterday;*
Now *still* as *death;* till *stalking* slow,—
The jingling spurs announced his tread,
A stately warrior passed below!

A stranger viewed the shore *around;*
'Twas all so *close* with copsewood bound,
Nor track *nor* pathway might declare
That human foot frequented there,
Until the mountain maiden show'd
A clambering unsuspected road,
That winded through the tangled screen,
And *open'd* on a narrow green,
Where weeping birch and willow *round*
With their long fibres swept the ground.

Know'st thou not,
That when the searching eye of heaven *is hid*
Behind the globe, and lights the lower world,
Then thieves and robbers range abroad *unseen*,
In murders and in outrage, *bloody here;*
But when from *under this terrestrial ball*,
He fires the proud tops of the eastern pines,
And darts his light through every guilty hole,
Then murders, treasons, and detested sins,
The dark *cloak* of night being pluck'd *from off their back*,
Stand bare and *naked*, *trembling* at *themselves*.

Keep *pushing*—'tis *wiser*
Than sitting aside,
And *dreaming* and sighing
And waiting the *tide.*
In life's earnest battle
They *only* prevail
Who daily march onward
And never *say fail!*

With an eye ever *open*—
A tongue that's not *dumb,*
And a *heart* that will never
To sorrow succumb—
You'll battle and conquer
Though *thousands assail:*
How *strong* and *how* mighty,
Who never say fail!

Welcome little *buttercups,*
Oh, the pretty *flowers,*
Coming ere the *spring-time*
To tell of sunny hours!
While the trees are leafless,
While the fields are bare,
Golden, glossy *buttercups,*
Spring *up* here and there.

Welcome, little buttercups,
Welcome, *daisies white,*
Ye are in my spirit,
Vision'd a *delight.*
Coming ere the spring-time
Of sunny hours to tell,
Speaking to the hearts of Him
Who doeth all things *well.*

One summer day I chanced to see
The Old Man *doing* all he could
To unearth the root of an old tree,

A *stump* of rotten wood.
The mattock tottered in his hand;
So *vain* was his endeavour,
That at the root of the old tree
He *might have worked* for *ever.*

"You're overtasked, good Simon Lee,
Give me your tool", to him I said;
And at the word *right* gladly he
Received my proffered aid.
I struck, and with a single blow
The tangled root I severed,
At *which* the poor Old Man so long
And vainly had endeavoured.

Why *should* I tell the rigid doom,
That dragg'd my master to his tomb;
How Ousenam's maidens tore their hair,
Wept till their eyes were dead and *dim,*
And wrung their hands for love of him,
Who died at Jedwood Air?
He died!—his scholars *one* by one,
To the cold silent grave *are gone;*
And I, alas! survive *alone,*
To muse o'er rivalries of yore,
And *grieve* that I *shall hear* no more
The strains with envy heard before;
For, with my minstrel brethren *fled,*
My jealousy of song is dead.

We that have known no greater state
Than *this* we live *in,* praise our fate;
For courtly silks in cares are spent,
When country's russet breeds content.
The power of sceptres we admire,
But sheep-hooks for our use desire.
Simple and low is our condition,
For here with us is no ambition;
We with the sun our flocks unfold,

Whose rising makes their fleeces *gold;*
Our *music* from the birds we borrow,
They *bidding* us, *we them*, good *morrow.*
Our habits are *but* coarse and plain,
Yet they defend from wind and rain;
As *warm*, too, in an equal eye,
As *those* bestain'd in scarlet dye.

The hour is *lovely* when the west
Is all in golden splendour drest;
And lovely is the varying *hue*
That streaks the twilight depths of blue;
But lovelier is the cold moon's light,
Brightening through the spheres of night.
When every wind that whistles *near*,
Pours melody upon the ear;
And, murmuringly, through bower and grove,
The sportive, lighter breezes rove,
To sing the loves they bear so well
To marigold, or asphodel,
Or *rose*, *that* jealous beauty tore,
In envy of the charms it wore—
Such *eve* it was! so sweetly *strange*,
  The echoes of the hill,
The voices of the forest range,
  The music of the rill.

Be noble! and the nobleness that lies
In other men sleeping, but never dead,
Will rise in majesty to meet thine own.

True ease in writing comes from art, not chance,
As those move easiest who have learned to dance.
'Tis not enough no harshness gives offence,—
The sound must seem an echo to the sense.

The more we live more brief appear
Our life's succeeding stages;
A day to childhood seems a year,
And years like passing ages.

Thrice is he armed who hath his quarrel just;
And he but naked, though locked up in steel,
Whose conscience with injustice is corrupted.

He who from zone to zone
Guides through the boundless sky thy certain flight,
In the long way that I must tread alone
Will lead my steps aright.

The tissue of the life to be
We weave with colours all our own,
And in the field of destiny
We reap as we have sown.

I roam the woods that crown
The upland, where the mingled splendours glow,
Where the gay company of trees look down
On the green fields below.

Alas for him who never sees
The stars shine through his cypress trees!
Who hopeless lays his dead away,
Nor looks to see the breaking day
Across the mournful marbles play!
Who hath not learned, in hours of faith,
That Life is ever lord of Death,
And Love can never lose its own!

Yet, perhaps, if countries we compare
And estimate the blessings which they share,
Though patriots flatter, still shall wisdom find
An equal portion dealt to all mankind;
As different good, by Art or Nature given,
To different nations makes their blessings even.